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ERRATA in Volume LII.

Page 18. l. 12. for '*Phiriasis*,' r. *Pthiriasis*.
63. l. 26. for 'and indeed,' r. *indeed and*.
90. l. 17. for 'three into,' r. *into three*.
—, l. 9. from bott. for 'offsprings,' r. *offspring*.
145. l. 25. for 'Carn,' r. *Cam*.
169. l. 22. for 'maximum again, r. *minimum again*.
184. l. 3. for 'variety, r. *vanity*.
199. Note * for xxvii. r. xxxvii.
321. l. 1. for '*Iltrattato*,' r, *Il trattato*.
327. l. 5. for 'compiler,' r *compilers*.
334. l. 11. for 'notions,' r. *notion*.
371. l. 2. for 'ground,' r. *grounds*.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JANUARY, 1807.

Art. I. *The Plays of Philip Massinger*, with Notes critical and explanatory, by William Gifford, Esq. 8vo. 4 Vols. 2l. 8s. Nicol, &c.

It is with considerable satisfaction that we receive a new edition of the plays of a great dramatic Poet, who was the cotemporary of Shakspeare, of Jonson, of Beaumont, and of Fletcher; and with whom his own name may be joined as giving lustre to the times in which they lived. Yet never within our memory, scarcely more than at the present moment, have the compositions of this writer been so generally known as their merit has deserved; although neither their phraseology will appear uncouth or obsolete, nor their humour be disrelished, while the plays of Shakspeare are studied and esteemed. They possess similar characteristics of the age which gave them birth, and are distinguished by kindred genius: but it must at the same time be remarked that they often offend equally, or in a greater degree, against the laws of probability in their incidents and the rules of decorum in their language. They must be admired for the invention, for the poetry, for the knowlege of mankind, for the powers of satire, of ridicule, and of wit which they discover, and even for the moral which they are designed to inculcate: but the alloy of indecency is so great that they can never be indiscriminately recommended, nor be read in a circle in which the modesty of youth or the delicacy of sex should be held sacred. The dramatists might find an apology for their licentiousness in the grossness of their days: but if we are not now in reality more virtuous, we are at least more refined.

Of Massinger's life, but little seems to be known. He was born in the year 1584 at Salisbury, or, as it is conjectured, at Wilton, the seat of the Earl of Pembroke, in whose service his father lived, and where he himself appears to have received his early instruction. His education was liberal; and in his eighteenth year, he was sent to the University of Oxford, where he became a Commoner of St. Alban's Hall. We find him afterward obliged 'by his necessities, and perhaps by the peculiar bent of his talents, to dedicate himself to the service of the Stage;' and here we are sorry to see him struggling with difficulties, in common with others whose subsistence depended on the emoluments to be derived from dramatic writings. He died on the 17th of March, 1640.

> 'He went to bed in good health, says Langbaine, and was found dead in the morning in his own house on the Bankside. He was buried in the churchyard of St. Saviour's, and the comedians paid the last sad duty to his name, by attending him to the grave.
>
> 'It does not appear, from the strictest search, that a stone, or inscription of any kind, marked the place where his dust was deposited: even the memorial of his mortality is given with a pathetick brevity, which accords but too well with the obscure and humble passages of his life: "March 20, 1639-40, buried Philip Massinger, A STRANGER"! No-flowers were flung into his grave, no elegies "soothed his hovering spirit," and of all the admirers of his talents and his worth, none but Sir Astone Cockayne dedicated a line to his memory. It would be an abuse of language to honour any composition of Sir Aston with the name of poetry, but the steadiness of his regard for Massinger may be justly praised. In that collection of doggrel rhymes, which I have already mentioned, (p. xiii.) there is "an epitaph on Mr. John Fletcher, and Mr. Philip Massinger, who lie both buried in one grave in St. Mary Overy's church, in Southwark:
>
> "In the same grave was Fletcher buried, here
> Lies the stage poet, Philip Massinger;
> Plays they did write together, were great friends,
> And now one grave includes them in their ends.
> To whom on earth nothing could part, beneath
> Here in their fame they lie, in spight of death."

The number of Massinger's plays which are known to be extant, and which are printed in the present collection, is eighteen: but one of these, *The Parliament of Love*, now first committed to the press, is in an imperfect state. Several others, by some strange negligence, were destroyed 'among the manuscript plays, collected with such care by Mr. Warburton (Somerset Herald) and applied with such perseverance by his cook to the covering of his pies.' Concerning this piece of destruction, Mr. Gifford shall speak for himself. The number of these plays, said to be written by Massinger alone, was not less than twelve, but probably two of them did not belong to him.

> 'Their titles, as given by Mr. Warburton, are—*Minerva's Sacrifice The Forced Lady. Antonio and Vallia. The Woman's Plot. The Tyrant. Philenzo and Hippolita. The Judge. Fast and Welcome.*

time. *Believe as you List.* *The Honour of Women.* *The Noble Choice.* And, *The Parliament of Love* When it is added that, together with these, forty other manuscript plays of various authors were destroyed, it will readily be allowed that English literature has seldom sustained a greater loss than by the strange conduct of Mr. Warburton, who becoming the master of treasures which ages may not reproduce, *lodges them*, as he says, *in the hands of an ignorant servant*, and when, after a lapse of years, he condescends to revisit his hoards, finds that they have been burnt from an economical wish to save him the charges of more valuable brown paper! It is time to bring on shore the book hunting passenger* in Locher's *Navis Stultifera*, and exchange him for one more suitable to the rest of the cargo.

‘Tardy, however, as Mr. Warburton was, it appears that he came in time to preserve three dramas from the general wreck; *The Second Maid's Tragedy.* *The Bugbears.* And *The Queen of Corsica.*

‘These, it is said, are now in the library of the marquis of Lansdowne, where they will probably remain in safety till moths, or damps, or fires mingle their "forgotten dust" with that of their late companions.

‘When it is considered at how trifling an expense a manuscript play may be placed beyond the reach of accident, the witholding it from the press will be allowed to prove a strange indifference to the ancient literature of the country. The fact however seems to be, that these treasures are made subservient to the gratification of a spurious rage for notoriety: it is not that any benefit may accrue from them either to the proprietors or others, that manuscripts are now hoarded, but that A or B may be celebrated for possessing what no other letter of the alphabet can hope to acquire.

‘Nor is this all. The hateful passion of literary avarice (a compound of vanity and envy) is becoming epidemick, and branching out in every direction. It has many of the worst symptoms of that madness which once raged among the Dutch for the possession of tulips:—here, as well as in Holland, an artificial rarity is first created, and then made a plea for extortion, or a ground for low-minded and selfish exultation. I speak not of works never intended for sale, and of which, therefore, the owner may print as few or as many as his feelings will allow, but of those which are ostensibly designed for the publick, and which, notwithstanding, prove the editors to labour under this odious disease. Here, an old manuscript is brought forward, and after a few copies are printed, the press is broken up, that there may be a pretence for selling them at a price which none but a collector can reach: there, explanatory plates are engraved for a work of general use, and, as soon as twenty or thirty impressions are taken off, destroyed with gratuitous malice, (for it deserves no other name,) that there may be a mad competition for the favoured copies! To conclude, for this is no pleasant subject, books are purchased now at extravagant rates, not because they are good, but because they are scarce, so that a fire or an enterprising trunk-maker that should take off nearly the whole of a worthless work, would instantly render the small remainder invaluable.'

---

* *Spem quoque nec parvam collecta volumina præbent*
Calleo nec verbum, nec libri sentio mentem,
Attamen in MAGNO per me servantur HONORE.

Of the previous editions of Massinger's plays, Mr. Gifford speaks in terms of reprehension bordering on contempt. The first of these was by Coxeter, or rather one published from Coxeter's papers by a bookseller of the name of Dell; and in which, we are told, 'Massinger appeared to less advantage than in the old copies.' A second edition was given by Mr. Thomas Davies: but, on the authority of Mr. Waldron, of Drury-lane Theatre, this is said to be only that of Dell with a new title page. The last labourer in this work was Mr. Monck Mason, and 'his edition is infinitely worse than Coxeter's.'—Alas, poor Massinger!

'The genuine merits of the Poet, however, were strong enough to overcome these wretched remoras. The impression was become scarce, and though never worth the paper on which it was printed, sold at an extravagant price, when a new edition was proposed to me by Mr Evans of Pall-Mall. Massinger was a favourite; and I had frequently lamented, with many others, that he had fallen into such hands. I saw, without the assistance of the old copies, that his metre was disregarded, that his sense was disjointed and broken, that his dialogue was imperfect, and that he was encumbered with explanatory trash which would disgrace the pages of a sixpenny magazine; and in the hope of remedying these, and enabling the Author to take his place on the same shelf, I will not say with Shakspeare, but with Jonson, Beaumont, and his associate Fletcher, I readily undertook the labour.

'My first care was to look round for the old editions. To collect these is not at all times possible, and, in every case, is a work of trouble and expense; but the kindness of individuals supplied me with all that I wanted. Octavius Gilchrist, a gentleman of Stamford, no sooner heard of my design, than he obligingly sent me all the copies which he possessed; the Rev. P. Bayles of Colchester (only known to me by this act of kindness) presented me with a small but choice selection; and Mr. Malone, with a liberality which I shall ever remember with gratitude and delight, furnished me, unsolicited, with his invaluable collection, among which I found all the first editions: these, with such as I could procure in the course of a few months from the booksellers, in addition to the copies in the Museum, and in the rich collection of His Majesty, which I consulted from time to time, form the basis of the present work.'

With these aids, Mr. Gifford undertook the business of collation; and we are informed that 'every play has undergone, at least, five close examinations with the original text. On this strictness of revision rests the great distinction of this edition from the preceding ones, from which it will be found to vary in an infinite number of places: indeed, accuracy, as Mr. M. Mason says, is all the merit to which it pretends; and though I would not provoke, yet I see no reason to deprecate the consequences of the severest scrutiny.'

With respect to the notes in this edition, it is observed that

'Those who are accustomed to the crowded pages of our modern editors, will probably be somewhat startled at the comparative nakedness of this. If this be an errour, it is a voluntary one. I never could conceive why the readers of our old dramatists should be suspected of labouring under a greater degree of ignorance than those of any other class of writers; yet, from the trite and insignificant materials amassed for their information, it is evident that a persuasion of this nature is uncommonly prevalent. Customs which are universal, and expressions "familiar as household words" in every mouth, are illustrated, that is to say, overlaid, by an immensity of parallel passages, with just as much wisdom and reach of thought as would be evinced by him who, to explain any simple word in this line, should empty upon the reader all the examples to be found under it in Johnson's Dictionary!'—

'I have proceeded on a different plan. Passages that only exercise the memory, by suggesting similar thoughts and expressions in other writers, are, if somewhat obvious, generally left to the reader's own discovery. Uncommon and obsolete words are briefly explained, and, where the phraseology was doubtful or obscure, it is illustrated and confirmed by quotations from contemporary authors. In this part of the work, no abuse has been attempted of the reader's patience: the most positive that could be found are given, and a scrupulous attention is every where paid to brevity; as it has been always my persuasion,

> "That where one's proofs are aptly chosen,
> Four are as valid as four dozen."

'I do not know whether it may be proper to add here, that the freedoms of the Author (of which, as none can be more sensible than myself so none can more lament them) have obtained little of my solicitude: those, therefore, who examine the notes with a prurient eye, will find no gratification of their licentiousness. I have called in no Amner to drivel out gratuitous obscenities in uncouth language;* no Collins (whose name should be devoted to lasting infamy) to ransack the annals of a brothel for secrets "better hid;"† where I wished not

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'* *In uncouth language*;] It is singular that Mr. Steevens, who was so well acquainted with the words of our ancient writers, should be so ignorant of their style. The language which he has put into the mouth of Amner is a barbarous jumble of different ages, that never had, and never could have, a prototype.

'† One book which (not being, perhaps, among the archives so carefully explored for the benefit of the youthful readers of Shakspeare) seems to have escaped the notice of Mr. Collins, may yet be safely not to detain the reader, I have been silent, and instead of aspiring to the fame of a licentious commentator, sought only for the quiet approbation with which the father or the husband may reward the faithful editor.'

Having selected these preliminary observations from Mr. Gifford's Introduction, which abounds not less with acuteness of remark than with asperity of censure, we shall proceed to inquire concerning the success which has attended his own endeavours to illustrate his author; and here our attention is naturally directed to such of his notes as tend, at the same time, to throw light on similar passages in our inimitable bard Shakspeare.

In the Virgin-Martyr, Act. 3. Sc. 3. we have this note:

' ——*before that* peevish *lady*
Had to do with you,] *Peevish is foolish*; thus, in *the Merry Wives of Windsor*, Mrs. Quickly says of her fellow servant, "His worst fault is, that he is given to prayer; he is something *peevish* that way." Mr. Malone thinks this to be one of dame Quickly's blunders, and that she means to say *precise*: but I believe he is mistaken. In *Hycke Scorner*, the word is used in the very sense here given:

" For an I sholde do after your scole
To learn to pater to make me *pevysse*."

Again in *God's Revenge against Adultery*; " Albemare kept a man-fool of some forty years old in his house, who indeed was so naturally *peevish*, as not Milan, hardly Italy, could match him for simplicity."

After this, we were rather surprised to find the following observation on a passage in which the word seems to be used in the same sense. Sir Giles Over-reach is reproving his daughter for wishing to delay her marriage:

" He tells you true! 'tis the fashion, on my knowlege:
Yet the good lord, to please your peevishness,
Must put it off, forsooth "

New Way to pay old Debts. Act 4. 3.

' *Yet the good lord, to please* your peevishness,] i. e. you, his daughter, to whom he gives the title. I have sometimes thought that this mode of expression, which is more common than cursory readers, perhaps, imagine, is not sufficiently attended to by the commentators. Many difficulties would vanish if these appellations were duly noticed, and applied.'

In *The Unnatural Combat*, Act 2. Sc. 1. we read

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safely commended to his future researches, as not unlikely to reward his pains. He will find in it, among many other things equally valuable, that, " *The knowledge of wickedness is not wisdom*, neither, at any time, the counsel of sinners prudence." *Eccles.* xix. 22.'

' I

'*It adds to my calamity, that I have*

'Discourse *and reason.*] It is very difficult to determine the precise meaning which our ancestors gave to *discourse*; or to distinguish the line which separated it from *reason* Perhaps, it indicated a *more rapid* deduction of consequences from premises, than was supposed to be effected by reason:—but I speak with hesitation. The acute Glanville says, "the act of the mind which connects propositions, and deduceth conclusions from them, the schools call *discourse*, and we shall not miscal it, if we name it *reason*" Whatever be the sense, it frequently appears in our old writers, by whom it is usually coupled with *reason* or *judgment*, which last should seem to be the more proper word. Thus in *the City Madam:*

> ——————— "Such as want
> *Discourse* and *judgment*, and through weakness fall,
> May merit men's compassion."

Again, in *the Coxcomb:*

> "Why should a man that has *discourse* and *reason*,
> And knows how near he loses in all these things,
> Covet to have his wishes satisfied?"

The reader remembers the exclamation of Hamlet,

> "Oh heaven! a beast that wants discourse *of* reason," &c.

"This," says Warburton, who contrived to blunder with more ingenuity than usually falls to the lot of a commentator, "is finely expressed, and with a philosophical exactness! Beasts want not *reason*," (this is a new discovery) "but the *discourse of reason*: i. e. the regular inferring one thing from another by the assistance of universals"! Discourse *of* reason is so poor and perplexed a phrase, that, without regard for the "philosophical exactness" of Shakspeare, I should dismiss it at once, for what I believe to be his genuine language:

> "O heaven! a beast that wants discourse *and* reason," &c.

Perhaps *discourse* is thus commonly connected with *reason*, as forming together the barrier by which man is separated from all other animals.

In *The Bondsman*, Act I. Sc. 3.

'*While you*——cry aim!

'*Like idle lookers on,*] Coxeter, who seems not to have understood the expression, gave the incorrect reading of the second quarto. *cry, Ay me!* which, after all, was nothing more than an accidental disjunction of the last word (*ayme*) at the press. Mr. M Mason follows him in the text, but observes, in a note, that we should read *cry aim* There is no doubt of it; and so it is distinctly given in the first and best copy. The expression is so common in the writers of Massinger's time, and, indeed, in Massinger himself, that it is difficult to say how it could ever be misunderstood. The phrase, as Warburton observes, *Merry Wives of Windsor*, Act II. sc. iii. was taken from archery: "When any one had challenged another to shoot at the butts, the standers by used to say one to the other, *Cry aim*, i. e. accept the challenge." Steevens rejects this explanation, which, in fact, has neither truth nor probability to recommend it; and adds: "It seems to have been the office of the *aim-cryer*, to give notice to the *archer* when he was within a proper distance of his mark," &c. Here this acute critick has fallen with the rest of the commentators, into an errour. *Aim!* for so it should be printed and not *cry aim*, was always addressed to the person about to shoot: it was an hortatory exclamation of the bystanders, or as Massinger has it, of the *idle lookers on*, intended for his encouragement. But the mistake of Steevens arises from his confounding cry *aim!* with *give aim.* To cry *aim!* as I have already observed, was to ENCOURAGE; to *give aim*, was to DIRECT, and in these distinct and appropriate senses the words perpetually occur. There was no such office as *aim cryer*, as asserted above; the business of encouragement being abandoned to such of the spectators as chose to interfere: to that of *direction*, indeed, there was a special person appointed. Those who cried *aim!* stood by the archers; he who *gave it*, was stationed near the butts, and pointed out after every discharge, how wide, or how short the arrow fell of the mark. An example or two will make all this clear:

"It ill becomes this presence to cry *aim!*
To these ill-tuned repetitions." *King John.*

i. e. to encourage.

"Before his face plotting his own abuse,
To which himself *gives aim*:
While the broad arrow with the forked head,
Misses his brows but narrowly." *A Mad World my Masters.*

i. e. directs.

"Now to be patient——were to play the pander
To the viceroy's base embraces, and cry *aim!*
While he by force," &c. *The Renegado.*

i. e. encourage them.

"This way I toil in vain, and *give* but *aim*
To infamy and ruin; he will fall,
My blessing cannot stay him." *The Roaring Girl.*

i. e. direct them.

" – Standyng rather in his window to—cry *aime!* than help-yng any waye to part the fraye." Fenton's *Tragical Discourses*. i. e. to encourage.

"I myself *gave aim* thus,—Wide, four bows! short, three and a half." Middleton's *Spanish Gypsie.*

i. e. directed.

'I should apologize for the length of this note, were it not that I flatter myself the distinct and appropriate meaning of these two phrases is ascertained in it, and finally established.'

Again, in the same scene—

———— *Let me wear*
'*Your colours, lady; and though* youthful heats,
That look no further than your outward form,
Are long since buried in me, *while I live,*

'*I am* &c.] This is evidently copied from that much contested speech of Othello, Act I. sc. iii: "I therefore beg it not," &c. as is the following passage, in *the Fair Maid of the Inn*:

> "Shall we take our fortune? and while our cold fathers,
> In whom long since their *youthful heats were dead*,
> Talk much of Mars, serve under Venus' ensigns,
> And seek a mistress?"

And as this shows how Shakspeare's contemporaries understood the lines, it should, I think, with us, be decisive of their meaning. The old reading, with the alteration of one letter by Johnson, stands thus:

> "———— ——— I therefore beg it not
> To please the palate of my appetite;
> Nor to comply with heat, the young affects
> In me defunct, and proper satisfaction," &c.

'The admirers of Shakspeare cannot but recollect with dismay, the prodigious mass of conjectural criticism which Steevens has accumulated on this passage, as well as the melancholy presage with which it terminates; that, after all, "it will probably prove a lasting source of doubt and controversy." I confess I see little occasion for either: nor can I well conceive why, after the rational and unforced explanation of Johnson, the worthless reveries of Theobald, Tollet, &c. were admitted.—*Affects* occur incessantly in the sense of passions, affections: *young affects* are therefore perfectly synonymous with *youthful heats*. Othello, like Timoleon, was not an old man, though he had lost the fire of youth; the criticks might therefore have dismissed that concern for the lady, which they have so delicately communicated for the edification of the rising generation.

'I have said thus much on the subject, because I observe, that the numerous editions of Shakspeare now preparing, lay claim to patronage on the score of religiously following the text of Steevens. I am not prepared to deny that this is the best which has hitherto appeared; though I have no difficulty in affirming that those will deserve well of the publick, who shall bring back some readings which he has discarded, and reject others which he has adopted. In the present instance, for example, his text, besides being unwarranted, and totally foreign from the meaning of his author, can scarcely be reconciled either to grammar or sense.

'I would wish the future editors of Shakspeare to consider, whether he might not have given *affect* in the singular, (this also is used for passion,) to correspond with *heat*; and then the lines may be thus regulated:

> "Nor to comply with heat, (the young affect's
> In me defunct,) and proper satisfaction."

So also in the Great Duke of Florence, Act 2. Sc. 3.

> ———— ——— ———'*Giovanni*,
> '*A prince in expectation, when he lived here*,

'Stole courtesy from heaven, &c.] This is from Shakspeare, and the plain meaning of the phrase is, that the affability and sweetness of Giovanni were of a *heavenly* kind, i. e. more perfect than was usually found among men; resembling that divine condescension which excludes none from its regard, and therefore immediately derived or *stolen* from heaven, from whence all good proceeds. In this there is no impropriety: common usage warrants the application of the term to a variety of actions which imply nothing of turpitude, but rather the contrary: affections are *stolen*—in a word, to *steal*, here, and in many other places, means little else than to win by importunity, by imperceptible progression, by gentle violence, &c.

'I mention this, because it appears to me that the commentators on our great poet have altogether mistaken him:

> "And then I *stole all courtesy from heaven*,
> And dress'd myself in such humility,
> That I did pluck allegiance from mens' hearts."
> *Hen. IV.* Part I. Act III. sc. ii.

"This," says Warburton, who is always too refined for his subject, "is an allusion to the story of Prometheus, who stole fire from thence; and as with *this* he made a man, so with *that* Bolingbroke made a king." If there be any allusion to the story, (which I will not deny,) it is of the most remote and obscure kind; the application of it, however, is surely too absurd for serious notice. Steevens supposes the meaning to be,—"I was so affable, that I engrossed the devotion and reverence of all men to myself, and thus *defrauded heaven of its worshippers*." Is heaven worshipped with "affability?" or have politeness and elegance of manners such irresistible charms, that, when found below, they must of necessity "engross all *devotion*," and exclude the Deity from our thoughts?—This is not the language, nor are these the ideas of Shakspeare: and it would well become the criticks to pause before they seriously disgrace him with such impious absurdities.'

We shall confine ourselves to one more specimen of successful elucidation of Shakspeare and Massinger conjointly, in the following passage from *A very Woman*, Act 4. Sc. 2.

'*In* way of youth *I did enjoy one friend*,] There is no passage in Shakspeare on which more has been written than the following one in *Macbeth*:

> "I have lived long enough, my *way of life*
> Is fallen into the sere, the yellow leaf, &c.

For *way of life* Johnson would read *May of life*; in which he is followed by Colman, Langton, Steevens, and others: and Mr. Henley, a very confident gentleman, declares that he "has now no doubt that Shakspeare wrote *May of life*," which is also the "settled opinion" of Mr. Davies! At a subsequent period Steevens appears to have changed his opinion, and acquiesced in the old reading, *way of life*, which he interprets, with Mr. M. Mason, course or progress, precisely as Warburton, whom every *mousing owl hawks at*, had done long before them. Mr. Malone follows the same track, and if the words had signified what he supposed them to do, nothing more would be necessary on the subject. The fact, however, is that these ingenious writers have mistaken the phrase, which is neither more nor less than a simple periphrasis for *life*; as *way of youth*, in the text, is for *youth*. A few examples will make this clear:

" If that, when I was mistress of myself,
And in my *way of youth*, pure and untainted,
The emperor had vouchsafed, &c." *Roman Actor.*

i. e. in my youth.

" So much nobler
Shall be your *way of justice*." *Thierry and Theodoret.*

i. e. your justice.

" Thus ready for the *way of death or life*,
I wait the sharpest blow." *Pericles.*

i. e. for death or life.

" If all the art I have or power can do it,
He shall be found, and such a *way of justice*
Inflicted on him!" *Queen of Corinth.*

i. e. such justice. " Probably," say the editors, " we should read *weight* of justice ; *way* is very flat."

" If we can wipe out
The *way of your offences*, we are yours, sir." *Valentinian.*

i. e. your offences. " To *wipe out the way*," the same editors again remark, " seems a strange phrase ; *stain*, we apprehend, will be allowed a better word : yet we should not have substituted it," (they actually foist it into the text) " had we not been persuaded that the old reading was corrupt." ! And thus our best poets are edited !

' It is unnecessary to proceed any further :—indeed I should have been satisfied with fewer examples, had not my respect for Shakspeare made me desirous of disencumbering his page, by ascertaining beyond the possibility of cavil, the meaning of an expression so long and so laboriously agitated. To return to Macbeth : *the sere and yellow leaf* is the commencement of the winter of life or of old age ; to this he has attained, and he laments, in a strain of inimitable pathos and beauty, that it is unaccompanied by those blessings which render it supportable. As his manhood was without virtue, so he has now before him the certain prospect of an old age without honour.'

On a passage in *The Fatal Dowry*, (Act 2. Sc. 2.) we have this note :

' ——— *you shall see him in the morning in the* Galley-foist, *at noon in the* Bullion, *in the evening in* Quirpo, &c.] I know not what to make of this passage. Mr. M. Mason thinks the places here mentioned were taverns ; it is full as likely that they were houses of publick resort for some kind of amusement. Our old writers give the name of *galley foist* to the lord mayor's barge ; but I see not how this, or any other of the city barges, can be meant here. *Bullions* are noticed by Jonson ; and in a manner that seems to determine them to be receptacles for thieves or gamblers :

" While you do eat, and lie about the town here,
And cozen in your *Bullions*." *The Devil's an Ass.*

Of *Quirpo* I can find no mention, and am therefore compelled to leave it, with the rest, to the reader's better judgment.'

Both Mr. M. Mason and Mr. Gifford are probably mistaken here. We think that these are neither taverns nor places of public resort, but the names of the different *dresses* which were put on this *dressing block.* The passage runs thus: "The other is his dressing block, upon whom my lord lays all his clothes and fashions ere he vouchsafes them his own person: you shall see him in the morning in the Galley-foist, at noon in the Bullion, in the evening in Quirpo, and all night in"—"a bawdy-house"—says Malotin, interrupting the former speaker. What the *galley-foist* was, we do not know: perhaps, some morning dress. The bullion was probably the rich or laced suit, an idea which the quotation from Jonson rather favours; and even now the rich pendant parts of the epaulette and of some other laced ornaments are called bullions: in the evening, the *Block* was again stripped of this, and reduced to his close jacket, the Quirpo or Cuerpo, and was thus in a state of preparation to pass the remainder of the night in the place to which Malotin dismisses him.

On some occasions, Mr. Gifford leaves his author's meaning obscure where a very slight alteration would render him intelligible. Such is a passage in *The Bondsman*, Act 5. Sc. 3.

> "Is my high birth a blemish?
> Or does my wealth, which all the vain expence
> Of women cannot waste, breed loathing in you,
> The honours I can call my own thoughts, scandals?"

The last line we would read thus,

> 'The honours I can call my own, thought scandals?'

Again, in The Picture, Act 1. Sc. 1.

> "While you, to whose sweet innocence both Indies
> Compared are of no value, wanting these
> Pass unregarded
> *Sophia.*——If I am so rich, *or*
> In your opinion, why should you borrow
> Additions for me?"

What is the *or* here? Either it is superfluous, or the phrase is elliptical, and some other words are omitted; as—"or am so."—

Although we perfectly agree with Mr. Gifford that, in some of the editions of our old poets, particularly Shakspeare, the volumes are overloaded with useless notes, we cannot avoid thinking that he has run into an opposite extreme, and has been too sparing of information where it was really required. Expressions and allusions frequently occur in Massinger, which, though clear to those who are versed in the writings of our old poets, may require to be explained to others. Such, perhaps, are the following:

> "To take
> *A say* of venison or stale fowl." *Unnatural Combat.*

that is, *assay*—to make an examination or tryal of it.

"I am jelly within already, and without
Embroidered all o'er with *statute lace.*"
Parliament of Love.

"If you've a suit, *shew water*; I am blind else."
Maid of Honour.

"I will not have you feed like the hangman of Flushing
Alone, while I am here." *New Way to pay old Debts.*

Was it peculiar to the hangman of *Flushing* to feed alone?

"When a young lady wrings you by the hand, thus,
Or with an amorous touch presses your foot,
Looks babies in your eyes," &c. *Renegado.*

With regard to this passage, Mr. Gifford perhaps thought that the readers of Massinger would not be at a loss for the meaning of the metaphorical expression, *Looks babies in your eyes*; or perhaps he *chose* not to attempt any explanation of it. It may indeed be considered by many connoisseurs in these amorous glances, as sufficiently obvious that Massinger here meant an invitation to that mysterious intercourse which the appearance of little *tell-tales* would afterward explain: but the words have been considered by others as alluding to those looks in which the Lover traces the miniature of himself in the pupil of his mistress's eye; and on this idea we recollect that a literary friend of ours composed a few stanzas, in which he has made a neat and, we think, a poetical allusion to this expression:

"Oh Lady, from whose lips the sweetest sounds,
E'er modulated yet by female tongue,
Have minister'd so kindly to Love's wounds,
Soothing the torture from themselves that sprung;
Oh Lady, have those lips, whose lightest touch
Thrilled bliss extatic, more than verse e'er sung,
Have they, oh Lady, changed their truth so much
To coldly utter—I no more am young!
Oh no! th' inviting smile that o'er them plays,
Their dewy fragrance, scenting the soft sigh,
Tell me I sin not as I fondly gaze
To read my sentence in that half-raised eye!
Oh no—I still am young—I see it plain—
I glow, an infant in your eyes again!"

We cannot close our review of this edition of Massinger's Plays, without expressing our obligations to Mr. Gifford for the pains which, in particular, he has bestowed on *The Parliament of Love*; a comedy now first printed from a manuscript in the possession of Mr. Malone. This is certainly a piece of great merit, and cannot be otherwise than applauded, though with commendation requiring numerous and great abatements: the principal of which must be on the score of the strain of indelicacy which runs throughout it, and which is interwoven in its very texture.—The poet, however, deserves much praise for his skill in the conduct of his play, and for many of his sentiments, as well as for the language in which they are conveyed. We certainly must rejoice in the recovery of this comedy, as it affords real pleasure to the reader, while it adds to the fame of the writer.

To each of these plays is affixed a short critical inquiry into its merits, written by Dr. Ireland *; and subjoined to *The Old Law*, 'an eloquent and masterly delineation of Massinger's character' is given by the same hand. These, we are happy to say, in the words of Mr. Gifford, 'will be received with peculiar pleasure, if precision, vigour, discrimination, and originality, preserve their usual claims to esteem.'

ART. II. *The Principles of Botany, and of Vegetable Physiology.* Translated from the German of D. C. Willdenow, Professor of Natural History and Botany at Berlin. 8vo. pp. 512. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

SINCE Professor Willdenow's new edition of Linné's *Species Plantarum*, though still unfinished, bears ample testimony to the extent and accuracy of his botanical knowlege, we opened this elementary volume with more than ordinary expectations. In one important respect, namely, in a greater variety of valuable information, it certainly possesses a decided advantage over similar publications, which have from time to time appeared in our own country: but logical precision has not uniformly presided over the exposition and distribution of his materials. In the first section of the Introduction, a very inadequate definition is given of Natural Philosophy, or Physics, which is said to be that 'science which teaches the properties of elements.' The distinctions of the three kingdoms of Nature, founded on the presence or absence, and on the duration or decay of the organs of reproduction, are scarcely more satisfactory, because, in a great many instances, the existence of these organs cannot be easily ascertained.—The remainder of the Introduction is occupied with directions for forming an Herbarium, and with definitions of certain technical terms: the former of which are too short to be of much practical utility, and might with propriety have been detailed in a concluding section of the work, while the latter should have been incorporated with the explanation of terms.

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* Prebendary of Westminster, and Vicar of Croydon in Surrey.

The Treatise itself is divided into eight parts, viz. Terminology, Classification, Botanical Aphorisms, Nomenclature, Physiology, Diseases of Plants, History of Plants, and History of the Science. It is obvious that this divison of the subject is by no means strictly philosophical. Nomenclature is only the detailed expression of Classification; Botanical Aphorisms are the principles on which both are founded; and the Diseases and History of Plants appertain to their Physiology. The Uses of Plants, on the contrary, might have formed a separate and important section: but these are wholly overlooked.

1. The title of the Professor's first division is a word of *hybrid* origin, which we could therefore wish to discard from our language. Under this head, nearly the whole range of botanical phraseology is explained with suitable precision and perspicuity; and, for the most part, in conformity with the Linnéan definitions: but there is an obvious inaccuracy in stating the stem (*caulis*) as a genus, having under it several species, of which the *stem* or *caulis* is the first mentioned. The terms applicable to the stems of mosses are inserted with great propriety; though we can scarcely approve of the new application of *seta*, since it may give rise to ambiguity. The removal of *frond* from the Trunk to the *Leaves* is a very justifiable innovation: but the species of *Fulcra*, or *Props*, are very superfluously multiplied, and are represented as including *bulbs*, *gems*, and *involucra*. M. Willdenow's exposition of the fructification and other parts of plants comprizes various terms relative to the class Cryptogamia, which had not yet found their way into other works of a similar description, and for which the student will feel duly indebted to the author. We see no good reason, however, for substituting *theca*, which had already a determinate signification, instead of *capsula*. *Utriculus* and *Samara* are assumed from Gærtner as species of pericarp, to which are added *pepo*, *lomentum*, and some others, though Gærtner's improved division of pericarps is passed unnoticed. The new terms introduced by Hedwig form part of the explanations.

2. Having briefly stated the necessity of systematical arrangement, the learned author indicates a few of the most obvious natural families of plants, and then proceeds to a concise exposition of the methods constructed by Cæsalpinus, Morrison, Hermann, Ray, Camellus, Rivinus, Tournefort, Linné, &c. That of the illustrious Swedish naturalist is, unfortunately, too compressed; and though the names of Batsch and Jussieu are mentioned, we are not favoured even with an outline of their arrangements: an omission for which it is not easy to devise an apology.

3. The botanical Aphorisms, in so far as they regard generic and specific distinctions, are well stated and illustrated, being chiefly borrowed from the *Philosophia* and *Critica Botanica*. We only wish that they had moreover embraced those principles on which are founded the orders and classes.

4. The Nomenclature presents us with an abridged view of the rules which are or ought to be observed in the formation of the generic and trivial names of plants, as they have been laid down by Linné and his followers.

5. Under Physiology, are noted the results of many curious and interesting experiments: but we are not satisfied that the Professor has succeeded in proving a genuine circulation of the vegetable sap, or in conveying to the tyro any very distinct notions of the different systems of vessels. We are more pleased with the ensuing enumeration of vegetable principles, most of which also occur in the animal kingdom:

'1. Caloric, is present in all parts of vegetables, and constitutes their temperature when free.

'2. Light, is found in the oils and other inflammable vegetable substances.

'3. The electric fluid shows itself by various electrical phenomena observed in plants.

'4. Carbon, is the chief constituent part of all vegetables.

'5. Hydrogen. This may easily be obtained in a gazeous form, combined with caloric, from all leguminose plants.

'6. Oxygen is, we shall soon find, evolved by the rays of the sun. Part of it, however, is combined with acidifiable bases and forms vegetable acids.

'7. Azote, is exhaled by plants in the night; the greatest part of it however is in a combined state.

> Whether azote belongs to the simple substances (elements), or as Goettling supposes, is a compound of oxygen and light, we must leave to the future decision of chemists. At present we shall consider it as a simple substance.

'8. Phosphorus occurs in plants of the 15th class, and in the gramina. Its existence manifestly appears by the shining of old rotten wood, the root of the common Tormentilla *recta*, and of rotten potatoes, Solanum *tuberosum*, &c.

'9. Sulphur, in form of acid combined with oxygen, is met with in many plants, either with potash, forming a sulphat of potash, or with soda, as sulphat of soda. Even in substance, sulphur has been found in the roots of the Rumex *Patientia*. After they were cut down, boiled and scummed, sulphur appeared in the scum when left to settle.

'11. Soda is peculiar to almost all plants growing on sea-shores or in salt marshes.

'12. Silica is found in the stem of the Bambusa *arundinacea*, and in the common reed, Arundo *Phragmites*. It is supposed to exist in the alder, Betula *Alnus*, and birch, Betula *alba*, as their wood often emits sparks when under the hand of turners.

'13. Alumina, it is said has been found in some plants.

'14. Magnesia some philosophers think, they have met with likewise.

'15. Barytes is chiefly obvious in grasses.

'16. Lime is found in almost all vegetables, most frequently in Chara *tomentosa*, a pound of which is said to contain five ounces of it.

'17. Iron is detected in the ashes of most plants.

'18. Manganese has likewise been sometimes found in plants [*].'

The amount of some of M. Humboldt's experiments on germination is thus briefly but distinctly reported:

'He found that oxygen proved an extreme stimulus to plants, and that without it they never can be brought to germinate. On this account germination went on quickly in metallic oxyds, especially in minium. In oil, on the contrary, carbon, hydrogen, in the filings of lead, iron, and copper, as well as in powdered molybdene and in alkalis, no one seed germinated. It soon occurred to him, that with oxygen as a stimulant he might forcibly make seeds germinate faster, and he actually found, that at the temperature of 20° Reaum. all seeds vegetated most rapidly when steeped in oxy-muriatic acid. One instance only will suffice. The seeds of the Lepidium *sativum* germinated after 6 or 7 hours, when put into oxy-muriatic acid; whereas when lying in common water, they required from 36 to 38 hours. In a letter, dated February, 1801, he writes me, that in Vienna they found much benefit from the discovery of this fact, and that seeds twenty and thirty years old, brought from the Bahama islands, Madagascar, &c. which constantly refused to germinate, very readily, in this way, vegetated, and produced plants which grew up very successfully. The Mimosa *scandens*, which as yet is not to be found in any botanic garden, grew very well with this acid. As every gardener cannot obtain the oxy-muriatic acid, Mr. Humboldt proposes a very easy method to procure it without difficulty. He took a cubic inch of water, a tea-spoonful of common muriatic acid, two tea-spoonfuls of oxyd of manganese, mixed it and placed the seeds in them. The whole was now allowed to digest with a heat of 18—30° Reaum. The seeds all germinated beyond expectation. It is necessary to take the seeds out, as soon as the corcle appears. 'That the seeds are not impaired by the acid, is proved by the many plants which have been treated in this way, under the inspection of Mr. Jacquin, and

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'[*] If some have detected gold in the vine, Vitis *vinifera*, oak, Quercus *robur*, hornbeam, Carpinus *betulus*, or in ivy, Hedera *helix*, and tin in Spanish broom, Spartium *junceum*, it seems merely to have been accidentally, as their presence has been stated as impossible by late experiments. Of the above principles, No 1—7, and 10, 16 and 17 are found in all plants, the rest only in some. The Fungi, especially the genera Peziza, Octospora, and Byssus have, according to the latest researches, not a vestige of lime.'

in which vegetation goes on wonderfully well, though many of them had their seeds steeped in the oxy-muriatic acid.'

On the subject of vegetable generation, the Berlin Professor frequently refers to the amusing and instructive experiments of Sprengel and Koelreuter.

6. The next division contains a succinct account of the principal diseases incident to plants, and the most approved methods of cure, when these are known. This *nosology* comprizes *Vulnus*, *Fractura*, *Fissura*, *Defoliatio notha*, *Hæmorrhagia*, *Albigo*, *Melligo*, *Rubigo*, *Lepra*, *Gallæ*, *Folliculus carnosus foliorum*, *Verrucæ*, *Squamationes*, *Bedeguar*, *Chlorosis*, *Icterus*, *Anasarca*, *Phiriasis*, *Verminatio*, *Tabes*, *Debilitas*, *Suffocatio incrementi*, *Exulceratio*, *Carcinoma*, *Necrosis*, *Gangræna*, *Ustilago*, *Mutilatio*, *Monstrositas*, *Flos multiplicatus*, *Flos plenus*, *Flos deformis*, *Flos prolifer*, *Clavus*, *Sterilitas*, and *Abortus*. The explanations of these maladies, and the modes of treating them, will not bear farther abridgment: but we are glad to see them formally introduced into an elementary treatise.

7. By the *History of Plants*, we are in this place to understand 'a comprehensive view of the influence of climate upon vegetation, of the changes which plants most probably have suffered during the various revolutions this earth has undergone, of their dissemination over the globe, of their migrations, and lastly, of the manner in which nature has provided for their preservation.' The intelligent reader will immediately infer that such topics invite to a more abundant display of fancy and conjecture than perfectly consists with a book of *principles*; and the author, accordingly, has not scrupled to blend theory with fact, and to digress into geological discussions which lie open to criticism. All the relevant matter, however, highly deserves the attention of the botanical student.

8. The concluding part is necessarily limited to a very rapid sketch, and appears to be generally correct in regard to dates and assertions: but we have again to remark that the celebrated Jussieu, whose system has attracted so much notice on the continent, deserved more specific illustration than the mere insertion of his name among a crowd of writers less known to the world of science.—The anecdote relative to Boerhaave's Spinosism would require confirmation, and should not be circulated unless on good authority. We are well assured that this eminent Dutch Physician was a man of most exemplary piety. A typographical anachronism occurs in the notice of Tournefort, whose death is said to have taken place in 1788, instead of 1708. Other typographical errors are discernible, which are unnoticed in the *Errata*.

We cannot compliment the translator on the neatness or the accuracy with which he has executed his task. The aukward collocation of the members of his sentences, the strong savour of German idiom, and his improper use of auxiliary verbs, sufficiently intimate his imperfect acquaintance with the English language. In the following sentences, nor only the expression but the meaning is singularly distorted: 'Not all plants do grow in earth, and therefore the root does not enter the ground.'—'Sometimes the petioli of pinnate leaves, when they remain after the leaves have dropped off, become thorns, as in Astragalus tragacantha, and other species of that genus. On the peduncles they grow larger, sharper, and assume, after the flower and fruit have fallen off, the shape of thorns; for instance, hedysarum cornutum: or lastly, the stipulæ become sharp, ligneous, they remain and change into thorns, for instance in the mimosa.' The terms *stipe*, *spathe*, *thyrse*, *rament*, *loment*, *grossification*, &c. are uncouth and barbarous. *Linnæus* and *Linné* are used indifferently throughout the work; and the translator seems to have been ignorant that the D. prefixed to the Professor's name in German is equivalent to M.D. in our own language, and not the initial of a Christian appellation.—In noticing such trifles we wish not to be reckoned fastidious: but we are solicitous to recommend uniformity and precision, even in the smallest matters, in every scientific publication that is destined for the perusal of the young. The ten plates which are subjoined to the present Introduction to Botany are well engraved, and form very suitable illustrations of the text: but we must object to the table of colours, on account of the very slovenly manner in which it is executed. If a second impression be required, we hope that the editors will profit by our well-meant suggestions: yet we are tempted to submit to their consideration, or to that of competent judges, the propriety of rather composing a separate work, more accurately arranged, and deduced from the best sources, both of a general and a particular description.

Art. III. *Popular Ballads and Songs*, from Tradition, Manuscripts, and scarce Editions; with Translations of similar Pieces from the antient Danish Language, and a few Originals by the Editor. By Robert Jamieson, A.M. and F.A.S. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Cadell and Davies. 1806.

It is natural that a refined and philosophical nation should applaud the industry that is employed in rescuing from oblivion those relics of antiquity which record manners and characters no longer within the reach of observation, and which add to its literature a species of poetry that civilized genius could never have created. We are not to wonder, also, that, when superior minds have discovered and begun to supply this desideratum, the subalterns in literature should crowd to the work, and soon afford a melancholy demonstration of their zeal and activity in an overwhelming multitude of unprofitable productions.

Some years have now elapsed, since eminent talents were first directed, in our own country, towards the traditionary compositions of our ancestors, and the long-unvisited hoards of our public libraries; and we have observed with pleasure, in the reception of their labours, such a general acknowlegement of their importance and interest as must insure the publication of all that is really precious in our remains of antiquity. The unfortunate effects of this study, however, have not yet been felt. It is but very lately that the present sentiment of these venerable memorials arose in the public mind, and as yet we possess little respecting them, except those works of taste and genius by which that opinion was established. Now, it exists in great strength; and the path to this department of literature is pointed out to those needy but ingenious men of letters, who eagerly flock to any new scene for the exertion of their predatory dexterity. They come, also, attended by that more honest, though not more productive class of authors who are destined, by a perpetual misconception of the prevailing taste, to annoy the world not less with their officious endeavours to gratify its desires, than their fellow-labourers by gratifying their own.

We have no doubt that, if yet unexplored recesses still conceal many curious and important remains of antient times, which we shall one day gratefully receive from the hands of our more discerning antiquaries, they must include a much greater accumulation of matter from which no art can extort either utility or amusement; and which, long after we are completely versed in all the virtues and vices which our ancestors ever acted or thought, in all the combinations of syllables and configurations of stanzas which they substituted for metre, and in all the varieties of drivelling which they hoped were the effusions of poetry, will still continue to minister to starving or misguided industry the amplest materials of public suffering. Believing this, then, can we be deemed unreasonable in the apprehension with which we look forwards to the torrent of barbarous erudition, which, 'ere all its sources are exhausted, seems destined to inundate our literature?

Under such impressions, we conceive it to be the duty of all to whom the honour of our press and the comfort of men of letters is in any degree intrusted, to arm themselves in all their judicial severity against the very earliest delinquents;—and we feel, with no slight satisfaction, from the determined antiquarian enthusiasm of the public, that we may now reprove the unprofitable intruders into this branch of learned investigation, without any hazard of discouraging a pursuit which is honourable to the character of the nation, and of some importance to its literature and philosophy.

Mr. Jamieson is not only very far from requiring all the censure that an offending antiquary may provoke, but has intitled himself in many respects to considerable praise: yet even this work of a man of abilities and feeling discovers many warning traits, from which the reader may conjecture what aspect the evil is likely to assume, when the whole herd of huntsmen and whippers-in of literature is let loose into the repositories of black letter and MSS.

The following passages from the editor's preface (which we have selected with some trouble, since the narrative is much diversified with small talk) contain a statement of Mr. J.'s opportunities for collecting authentic materials:

'In March, 1779, I—a man that acknowledges favours may be allowed to be an egotist—communicated my design to the Rev. Dr. Gerrard, Professor of Theology in King's College, Aberdeen, who, with his usual zeal where the promotion of liberal pursuits is concerned, entered warmly into my views, and not only himself did every thing he could, but obtained of Professor Scott of the same College a transcript of a large collection of upwards of twenty pieces, which that gentleman had written down a good many years ago, when he was very young, from the recitation of his aunt Mrs. Brown of Falkland. These, being almost all new to me, and none of them having ever been printed, encouraged me to proceed with spirit and confidence, and I was much gratified to find that the kind zeal and industry of my friends, and the obliging politeness of every person to whom I applied, was likely to enable me in a considerable degree to surmount the disadvantages and difficulties I laboured under, from having resided very little in the lowlands of Scotland since I was turned of fifteen, and from my being confined by a laborious employment and very limited circumstances to an inland manufacturing town in England. Anxious, however, to do the utmost in my power for my work, in the summer of 1800 I took a journey to the North of Scotland, and stopping at Edinburgh in my way, was not a little mortified to find that Mr. Scott was engaged in an undertaking of the same kind, in which he had made nearly the same progress, and that the greater part of the materials collected for both works was the same.'—

'In 1800 I paid an unexpected visit to Mrs. Brown at Dysart, where she then happened to be for her health, and wrote down from her unpremeditated repetition about a dozen pieces more, most of which will be found in this work; several others which I had not time to take down were afterwards transmitted to me by Mrs. Brown herself, and by her late highly respectable and worthy husband, the Rev. Dr. Brown. "As to the *authenticity* of the pieces themselves, they are as authentic as traditionary poetry can be expected to be; and their being more entire than most other such pieces are found to be, may be easily accounted for, from the circumstance that there are very few persons of Mrs. Brown's abilities and education, that repeat popular ballads from memory. She learnt most of them before she was 12 years old, from old women and maid servants; what she once learnt she never forgot; and such were her curiosity and industry, that she was not contented with merely knowing the story according to one way of telling, but studied to acquire all the varieties of the same tale which she could meet with. In some instances these different readings may have insensibly mixed with each other, and produced from various disjointed fragments, a whole, such as reciters, whose memories and judgment are less perfect, can seldom produce. But this must be the case in all poetry which depends for its authenticity upon oral tradition alone.'

This last piece of reasoning, which should establish the superior claim to perfection in Mr. J.'s collection of ballads, does not appear to us eminently successful; since we cannot think that people of education and abilities are the most faithful reporters of legendary tales. That which they cannot understand they are under a strong temptation to make intelligible by conjectural emendations, and fancy at times may supply the defects of recollection. It seems to us that the editor would have been more fortunate, if he could have collected his ballads fresh from their natural reporters, the country people; whose faithful memory is not exposed to disturbance in the discharge of its duty, from any intrusion of criticism or imagination.

On Mr. Jamieson's arrangement we should have had little to remark, if he had adhered to it. The first volume consists of Tragic Ballads, Humorous Ballads, and Songs: the second, of Miscellaneous Ballads, Songs, and an Appendix, the latter of which contains nothing but duplicates, with some small variation. Most editors, with half the sense of Mr. J. would have troubled us with the various readings only; and not even with these, had they related to such unfortunate productions as '*the Trumpeter of Fyvie.*' In the Miscellaneous class, we have '*the Gude Wallace,*' which is certainly "*as tragical a tragedy as ever was tragedized by any company of tragedians.*" All those relating to Sir John Barleycorn should have been comprehended among the ludicrous compositions; and we are not quite certain that the latter class has any title to '*the Carle of Kellieburn Braes.*' A woman being sent to the devil is an occurrence of such a nature, that no way of telling the story can make the event humorous. The translations from the Danish, and a few original ballads, are scattered about with a dignified indifference to order; and an old ballad, '*Lord Wayates and Auld Ingram,*' is unaccountably wedged in between a drinking song and a Christmas carol.

We now come to the consideration of the materials themselves, by the merits of which the work must either stand or fall; and here we mean to select from Mr. J.'s pages those parts which appear to us most striking, either in the antient ditties themselves, or in the accompanying illustrations, adding such remarks as a perusal of them may suggest.

'*Child Maurice.*' We were much gratified on meeting with this rude original of the celebrated ballad Gill Morris; and the more because at one time its very existence was doubted. In its present state, it is a faithful transcript of the copy preserved in Bishop Percy's folio MS. so often mentioned in the "Relics of Antient English Poetry," and elsewhere. It is undoubtedly very much corrupted, and in some passages unintelligible: but its curiosity overbalances these defects. It ends thus:

> 'Sayes, wicked be my merry men all
> I gave meate and drinke and clothe
> but cold they not have holden me
> when I was in all that wrath
>
> 'for I have slain one of the courtesusest knights
> that ever bestrode a steede
> so have I done one of the fairest ladyes
> that ever ware woman's weede.'

The hero's station in society is rendered decidedly clear in the concluding stanza. Late writers, and particularly Mr. Scott, (see his Minstrelsy of the Border, Vol. II. p. 20.) who enters his protest in rather confident language against the absurdity of supposing him a knight, as the denomination of *Child* was usually supposed to imply, must endeavour to support their argument by some other kind of evidence than that which they have produced.

'*Sweet Willie and Fair Annie.*' This ballad has been repeatedly published by former editors, and we see no superiority in this copy which should intitle it to its place. We remark one defect which is common to all editions of it: poverty is made the objection to Fair Annie as a wife for Sweet Willie; yet, towards the conclusion, she is represented as being drest in the most gorgeous style of magnificence.

'*Fair Annie of Lochrayan.*'—'This beautiful piece was adopted into this collection, and '*Fair Annie's Complaint*' written to accompany it, long before the editor knew any thing of Mr.

Scott's

Scott's intended publication.' As this is the first of nearly twenty assertions of this kind, we take the earliest opportunity of asking Mr. J. what is meant by it. Does he blame Mr. Scott; as he elsewhere tells us that his copies were transmitted to him? A clear statement ought to have been made by one of the two gentlemen, mentioning who was the original possessor of the ballads in question, in order that the public might know who was intitled to praise or blame for their appearance. As the matter stands, we are unable to settle their respective claims. In the ballad itself, we have somewhere seen or heard repeated the lines

'O, wha will kemb my yellow hair
Wi' a new made *silver* kemb.'

thus

'Or wha wil kemb my yellow hair
Wi' a new made *birken* kemb.'

Ideas of sanctity, we believe, were formerly connected with the birchen tree; and fair Annie, who is about to undertake a long journey, naturally wishes to be fortified against spells. Mr. Scott's collection includes a wild legendary tale of the spirits of three young men who had been lost at sea, re-visiting their mother; and their hats are said to be made of the birch. '*Fair Annie's Complaint*,' suggested by the story in this ballad, and composed by the editor, is extremely simple and tender.—The line 'Dark, wild, and bitter is the night,' he has, in some others of his compositions, *translated* (what else can we call it?) into 'Mark, Wull, and goustie was the night;' which we will suppose may be the language of the *terra incognita*: we apprehend that it is not Scotch.

From '*Clerk Saunders*' we shall make some extracts, because we consider it as standing nearly at the head of the romantic compositions in this work. For the sake of perspicuity, we may premise (though, if our readers be in any degree ballad-students, they must now be tolerably familiar with this feature of our antient national manners,) that in old times it was not unusual for a young gentleman and lady, without any preparatory ceremonies, to take steps which we should deem more decorously preceded by the formality of a marriage licence. Clerk Saunders and Margaret, who were in this occasionally-unfortunate predicament, are discovered in the lady's bower by her brethren, who inquire the name of her paramour, and deliberate on the means of avenging her dishonour:

'Then up and spak her eldest brither
Ay in ill time spak he
It is Clerk Saunders your true love
And never *mote I the* (might I thrive)

But for this scorn that he has done
This moment he shall die.

'But up and spak her youngest brither
Ay in good time spak he
O but they are a gudelie pair!
True lovers an ye be
The sword that hangs at my sword belt
Sall never sinder ye.

'Syne up and spak her nexten brither
And the tear stood in his ee
You've loed her lang and loed her weel
And pity it wad be
The sword that hangs at my sword belt
Should ever sinder ye!'

These reasons, however, not appearing sufficiently conclusive to the rest of her brothers, they put the offender to death. The stanzas in which the appearance of his ghost to Margaret is described, and the conclusion, probably suggested to Bürger (who was much indebted to our antient poetry) the idea of his "*Lenore.*"

'O I'm Clerk Saunders your true love
Behold Margaret, and see:
And mind for a' your meikle pride
Sae will become of thee.

'Gin ye be Clerk Saunders my true love
This meikle marvels me
O wherein is your bonny arms
That wont to embrace me.

'By worms they're eaten, in mools they're rotten,
Behold Margaret and see
And mind for a' your meikle pride
Sae will become of thee.

* * * * * *

'O bonny bonny sang the bird
Sat on the coil of hay
But dowie dowie was the maid
That follow'd the corpse o' clay.

'Is there any room at your head, Saunders,
Is there any room at your feet,
Is there any room at your two sides
For a lady to lie and sleep.

'There's nae room at my head, Margaret,
As little at my feet,
There is nae room at my two sides
For a lady to lie and sleep.'

Passing over '*Glenkindie*,' which is only a bad copy of "*Glasgerion*" published by Percy in the Reliques, we come to the '*Baron of Brackley*;' which afforded us much gratification as exhibiting, in animated language, what we believe to be a faithful picture of the family feuds and popular disturbances, which were frequent in the northern parts of our island down to the commencement of the last century. The Baron of Brackley was John Gordon, a gentleman of amiable dispositions, a cadet of the family of Aboyne. He was in habits of intercourse with Farquharson of Inverey, a relation of his own, but of a very different character; and who, under pretext of some injury either imagined or received, surrounded the house of Gordon, who was killed in the affray. The ballad, which is formed from two copies obtained by recitation, commences thus:

'Down Dee side came Inverey whistling and playing,
Has lighted at Brackley gates at the day dawning
Says "Baron o'Brackley O are ye within
There's sharp swords at the gate will gae your blood spin."
The lady raise up to the window she went
She heard her kye lowing o'er hill and o'er bent
"O rise up ye Baron and turn back your kye
For the lads of Drumwharran are driving them bye."
"How can I rise lady or turn them again
Where'er I have ae man I wot they hae ten"
"Then rise up my lasses take rocks in your hand
And turn back the kye, I hae you at command
Gin I had a husband as I hae nane
He wadna lye in his bower see his kye taen."
Then up got the Baron and cried for his graith
Says "Lady I'll gang tho' to leave you I'm laith
Come kiss me then Peggy and gie me my speir
I ay was for peace tho I never fear'd weir
Come kiss me then Peggy nor think I'm to blame
I weel may gae out but I'll never win in."
When Brackley was busked and rade o'er the closs
A gallanter Baron ne'er lap to a horse.'

The indignation of the humble bard, perhaps a retainer of the family, afterward breaks forth in similar strains against the lady of Gordon; who, it seems, after the conflict, opened her gate, and entertained till morning the murderer of her husband. In his introduction to this piece, the editor informs us that, when Farquharson and his Catherine went on a marauding expedition for scouring the country, their visits were so sudden that the intruders were generally gone again before the poor sufferers had warning to guard against them. If the passage be correct, a Highland Baron and his wife, probably, or mistress, riding out at the head of their clan and plundering their neighbours, form a curious picture in the history of the age. It will be unlucky if Catherine should only be a blunder of the printer for *Catharins*, or Ketterans, sometimes corrupted into *Kerns*, literally *soldiers*, but usually signifying *free booters*.

We now pass through much uninteresting matter, consisting principally of ballads poor in themselves and still poorer in Mr. J.'s editions of them; among which the reader may especially notice the before mentioned *Trumpeter of Tyvie*, and a very pathetic history of a *Laird of Warrieston*; shewing how a lady, whose waist was no larger than a willow wand, ventured some impertinent observation to her husband, who, in return, being desperately in love with her, *broke her face* with a plate which he threw at it for that purpose:—how she, being somewhat dissatisfied with this conjugal correction, left the room, and met at the third step from the door with no less a personage than "Man's Enemy" himself, who suggested to her the propriety of terminating their difference by murdering her husband; and who, finding that she wanted only the means, and nothing of the good will, furnished her with a halter, and even lent his hand to assist her in the use of it;—and, finally, how, being condemned to the flames, she seized the opportunity, while the fire was lighting, of explaining to the spectators the moral of her singular history.

The translations from the Danish next arrest us.—Mr. Jamieson is in possession of an hypothesis that much of our traditionary lore is derived from a Scandinavian source; and that such an origin is possible we will not deny, but Mr. J. has adduced no facts to convince us of its reality; and until we see better proof, we may be permitted to use an observation which has been quoted ever since quoting began, "*quod verbo dicitur verbo refelli fas est.*" We see, indeed, from certain authority, that the Danes derived many tales from the Minstrels of the South; for a confirmation of which idea we briefly refer our readers to Mr. Ritson's preface to his antient English Metrical Romances: but we know not of any evidence of a *reciprocal* traffic in this ware. It may be that those pieces of antient Scottish and Danish popular poetry, which have any similarity, have been derived from some common source: a supposition which is at least as natural as that of the traditions of the Danes having remained so many centuries in Scotland, after the connection between the countries had almost entirely ceased.—Of the pieces themselves we have very little to remark, except that our feelings at their appearance may be correctly expressed by Quince's ejaculation of surprize, "Bless thee,. Bottom! bless thee! thou art translated!"—Of the merit of the translation we cannot speak, because we have not the *Kempe Viser* lying on our table: but we trust that it is more skilfully executed than that of Göthe's Mermaid, in which Mr. J. had no reason to apprehend that he had preserved *too much* of the German costume. A Danish old ballad is indeed less trying than a poem of Göthe; who, whatever may be the defects of his genius, is certainly a consummate master of his language, and imposes a hard and doubtful task on the translator who undertakes at once for the simplicity and the spirit of his original.

Some of Mr. Jamieson's own compositions are decidedly superior to his Danish ballads. His smaller pieces in general possess great tenderness of thought and expression: but we are sorry that we must exclude from this praise one which, from its subject, should have been the most interesting of all. It is probable, indeed, that this subject was beyond his powers, and like every other modern poet who has attempted *Fair Helen of Kirkonnel lea,* (including even Mr. Pinkerton, on whose performance Mr. J. has bestowed his admiration in a very extravagant manner,) he has only disfigured his original. He has extended the old ballad by the addition of some stanzas, the ideas of which, perhaps, are natural, since we have seen them in all lovers' verses on the loss of their mistress that we recollect to have read: but the beautiful closing stanza, which is among the most precious memorials of the power of love in the poetry of barbarians, is here wantonly mangled, with a violation of taste and a defiance of feeling which almost rival the exertions of Mr. Pinkerton on the same subject.—What will a Scotchman say when, instead of his well-known,

" I wish my grave were growing green
A winding-sheet put o'er my een
And I in Helen's arms lying
On fair Kirkonnel lea"—

he finds

' O gin with thee, regretted maid!
I in the mools at saught were laid,
And the green truff closed o'er my head
On fair', &c.

and this wilfully substituted for the simple fervency of a feeling that is breathed from the inmost soul!—Mr. J.'s humorous poems are inferior to his others, though they are not deficient in a certain original cast of thought which in some degree redeems their faults. We must not, however, omit to remark one fault which stands in great need of redemption; the deliberate pedantry with which the writer has frequently laboured to conceal his meaning under a mask of antiquity. We take an example at random:

'*The dolly lamentacioun and complentis of ane Luffar for hys Lemman, quham hyr parentis had garrit marrye till ane uthir more ryche.*'

> 'O Lufe, quharefoir thi sclavis leil
>   Have zu swa snellich all to schent?
> Or quharefoir brast the stoup of hele
>   On quhilk twa gentil hertis lent?
> Quhan I was Jok and scho was Gyl,
> And we mocht luf and wow at wyl
> How seilful and how blyith wer we!
> Bot ach! na langare blyith we be.'

If any reader hopes to decypher this passage by means of Mr. J's. glossary, or indeed by any other glossary, he will find himself much deceived; and it is not perhaps in any person's power to point out, in the compass of as few lines, so many difficult words and expressions, in any Scottish composition from the days of Dunbar downwards. In the most beautiful as well as the most antient Scottish songs, we are assured that not above one or two words are unintelligible to a native of Scotland at the present day: but, in order to understand the above, we must visit Denmark, turn over the *Sagas*, *Eddas*, and *Kempe Visers*, and explore in short the whole circle of Mr. J.'s literature, that we may return home qualified to read his songs. We tried once or twice the effect of substituting a less wondrous orthography, and of inserting here and there a more intelligible and equally antient Scottish phrase: but we shall not disclose the result of the experiment.—Mr. J. might not thank us for scouring the shield.

The most curious piece in the whole collection undoubtedly is the antient romance of '*True Thomas* (the Rhymer) *and the Queen of Elfland*,' and it would give interest to a much less valuable work than the present; its merits being not only intrinsically great, but the whole presenting us with a striking picture of the nature of poetry which is preserved only by tradition. Many fragments of it are occasionally procured by recitation; yet no one of them, except in a part of the story, agrees with the original, and few copies of the same fragment with themselves. Mr. J. has used great diligence in collecting the copies which came in his way, and is indebted for other collations to his friends.—The story is not worth abridging: but the language, in which some of the Elfin Queen's prophecies are couched, is uncommonly strong. She speaks of Scotland desolated by war:

'Steeds away, masterless shall fling
  On the mountains to and fro.
Their saddles on their backs shall hing (*hang*)
  Until the girths be rotten in two.

* * * *

'Then she said with heavy cheer
  The tears ran out of her een (eyes) gray
Lady or (rather than) thou weep so sore
  Take thy hounds and wend thy way.

'I weep not for my way-walking
  Thomas, truly I thee say (tell)
But for ladies shall wed lads ying (young)
  When their lords are dead away.

'He shall have a steed in stable fed,
  A hawk to bear upon his hand,
A bright lady to his bed
  That before had none in land.'

The ballad of *Robin Hood and the Monk*, which follows soon afterward, is curious, and well worthy of preservation: but, through haste or ignorance, it is here indifferently edited. The lines

'In at the durris they *threly* thrast
  With staves full gode *wone*'

are eminently obscure. *Threly* should in our opinion be *rethly*, quickly: such transpositions of letters being frequent, especially where many alliterative sounds occurred. *Wone* is a word which we have seen, though we cannot now refer to the place, and which signifies number or quantity. The Scottish word *wheen* is radically the same. After the stanza, ending with "He lay styl as any stone," some stanzas are evidently wanting, though the page proceeds as if there were no defect.

We do not comprehend the reasonableness of the introduction of several little pieces re-published from scarce editions, which have nothing in common with the nature of the rest of the work; and the best of which are already restored to the public in Mr. Ellis's Specimens of Antient English Poetry. (See Review for November last.)

On the prefaces and notes to the ballads, we cannot bestow much commendation. The inerudite reader will seldom be surprized in them by the results of curious research; and in a member of the Antiquarian Society, this inactivity is hardly fair. The style is inelegant, and even harsh: but this fault may be more easily forgiven than the strain of flippant yet not sprightly levity which marks most pages of the Editor's prose, and is happily set off by a sort of pedantry much less to have been expected than that which renders a great part of his poetry unintelligible. A very simple statement, to which every reader assents as he reads it, is made a very serious business by the introduction of some mighty Heathen in its support. For example; an old man having said, "I sleep right oft, I wake right oft," the phrase is explained to express the short interrupted slumbers that naturally accompany old age, and this seems entirely satisfactory, but Mr. J. is not satisfied: for Euripides knew this; and what is more he wrote two verses to say so, and they are in the Iphigenia in Aulis; and Mr. J. knows where they are; and they are as follows, *Μαλα το γηρας* —κ. τ. λ. Another quotation also is made which we cannot avoid giving, for the beauty of the introduction. 'This account of the birth of Robin Hood is certainly very characteristic, and perfectly consistent with his subsequent life and conduct, *insomuch that it cannot be said of him as Dejanira says of Hercules,* "*dissimiles hic vir et ille puer.*"—We cannot, however, refuse our acknowlegements of obligation to an author who, with so marked a propensity to quotation as Mr. J. possesses, and a discovery so convenient for his purpose as that a passage should be cited merely because it is inapplicable, has suffered us to escape with so little molestation.

Hitherto, we have chiefly considered those faults in the work before us which relate to the editor's collection of ballads: but it betrays also some that are sufficiently grating to the reader's feelings, which have no connection with it, relating solely and entirely to the writer himself. This gentleman is continually making his appearance in his own proper person, starting up in the midst of *Sagas* and *Eddas*, to torture the nerves of compassionate men with very lamentable but somewhat unintelligible complaints of the miseries of his destiny. Our sympathy must always be deeply engaged by observing the struggle of genius through poverty and misfortune: but it is repelled by the obtrusive lamentations of those who complain of the cruelty of being obliged to endure the common hardships of life, and to gain an honest subsistence by the exertion of their own powers.

For the Glossary, we were preparing a rigorous destiny, but the article is already sufficiently long. We shall therefore just observe that about one half of the difficult words occur in it, and that of these a considerable number are ill explained, while many others are inserted and charitably interpreted which are at this day good current English.

Art. IV. *The Anatomy and Surgical Treatment of Inguinal and Congenital Hernia.* By Astley Cooper, F.R.S. Surgeon to Guy's Hospital. Illustrated by Plates. Folio. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cox, Johnson, &c.

The circumstances, which render the treatment of hernia an object of peculiar importance to the operator of surgery, cannot be better expressed than in the words of the present author:

'No disease of the human body, belonging to the province of the surgeon, requires in its treatment a greater combination of accurate anatomical knowlege with surgical skill, than hernia in all its varieties. Symptoms immediately threatening the extinction of life occur at times, and in situations, that afford but little opportunity for consulting the authority of others, and demand in the surgeon a prompt resolution and decisive practice. Accurate anatomical knowlege is frequently required to detect the presence of this disease at that period at which alone the milder process of reduction is practicable; and still more is the combination of skill and intelligence necessary to enable the surgeon to meet all the occurrences which may happen, when the use of the knife becomes the only method of saving the patient.'

In the work before us, Mr. Cooper professes to give an anatomical description of inguinal hernia in its successive stages, and of the parts that lie contiguous to it; and afterward to point out the method of performing the operation in the different varieties of the disease. It may be asserted that no person can be better qualified for the undertaking than Mr. Cooper, as well from his acknowleged talents and skill, as from the opportunities of observation which he possesses, in conquence of his situation in one of the most extensive hospitals of the metropolis.

Chapter I. contains a description of the different kinds of herniæ, and more particularly of those which take place from the abdominal ring, to which the attention of the author is afterward exclusively directed. He points out the manner in which the disease is originally formed, and its connections with the surrounding parts; minutely describing the state of the hernial sac in its different varieties, and the appearance of the bodies which form its external covering. In the 2d chapter, we have an accurate and perspicuous account of the parts concerned in inguinal herniæ. The manner in which the tendons of the abdominal muscles, and the fasciæ connected with them, constitute the abdominal ring and the crucial arch, is particularly stated; together with the passage through which the spermatic chord proceeds from the abdomen to the ring, the peculiar conformation of which, though not altogether a discovery on the part of Mr. Cooper, has been so little noticed by former anatomists that they have afforded a very imperfect idea of the structure of the parts, and have led to an erroneous and defective practice.

In chapter III. the formation of hernia is described, and the diagnostic symptoms are pointed out which distinguish it from other diseases of the part. The circumstances which most clearly indicate the presence of inguinal hernia are the following:

> 'First, when the patient is desired to cough, the tumour becomes immediately distended, owing to the pressure of the abdominal muscles forcing down into the sac more of the viscera or their contents.—Secondly, when the patient can state from his remembrance that, on the first appearance of the tumour in the groin, it had used to return into the abdomen when he was in a horizontal posture, and to re-appear on standing erect; though circumstances may have long prevented this symptom from continuing.—Thirdly, when the progress of the tumour has been from the groin gradually downwards to the scrotum.—Fourthly, when the tumour contains intestine, it is elastic and uniform to the touch; and on being pushed up into the abdomen, it returns with a guggling noise. But when omentum is contained, the tumour is less equal on its surface, receives an impression from the fingers, is heavier than in the former case, and does not make the same noise when returned into the abdomen. Most commonly, however, both intestine and omentum are the contents of the hernia, a circumstance which impairs the accuracy of any very nice distinctions by the touch: though still on pushing back the contents of the tumour, the presence of intestine, which returns the first, will often be indicated by the guggling noise, while the more solid omentum may be felt going up after it.—Lastly, the functions of the viscera are somewhat interrupted. Eructations, sickness, constipation, colicky pains, and distension of the abdomen, occur; and pain is produced by violent exertions, coughing, or sneezing. These are the symptoms that generally give the patient some suspicion of the nature of the complaint.'

These diagnostics sufficiently distinguish the disease from many others which, on a cursory inspection, seem to resemble it: but in some cases the symptoms are more obscure; and when the different affections become complicated with each other, a circumstance by no means of rare occurrence, the practitioner has occasion to exercise his nicest powers of discernment.

Chapter IV. treats of the causes of hernia. These are resolved into two kinds, those which diminish the resistance of the abdominal muscles, and those which increase the pressure of the viscera; in all cases, the principal pre-disposing cause is weakness. Mr. Cooper enumerates a number of circumstances which most frequently induce this disease, all of which operate in one of the ways stated above. Among others, he mentions external heat; and in confirmation of this opinion, he remarks that hernia has been observed by different travellers to be unusually frequent in hot climates. We doubt, however, whether there be sufficient evidence of the fact; and we think that the disgusting spectacles, which have been seen in those countries, rather prove the ignorance of the inhabitants respecting the method of treating the disease, or their inattention to such objects of wretchedness. Its frequency in England is much greater than any one would imagine from such a view of the inhabitants as could be obtained by merely passing through the country; and Mr. Cooper himself informs us that, in examining the bodies of old men, he has seldom found them entirely free from it.

According to the condition in which they exist, herniæ are divided into reducible, irreducible, and strangulated; and the 5th chapter treats on the first of these species. This subject gives rise to some practical remarks on the employment of trusses, in which the author has occasion to turn to a valuable purpose his observation respecting the form of the passage through which the spermatic chord descends to the ring. The pad of the truss is generally applied over the abdominal ring itself: but, in order to prevent the future descent of the intestine, it ought to press on the aperture where it first leaves the abdomen.—Irreducible hernia is a less manageable complaint: but its increase may be prevented by the use of a bag truss; and by the gentle pressure which this application affords, a gradual absorption of the adipose matter is sometimes effected, and the tumour becomes at length capable of reduction.—In the 7th chapter, we have an account of strangulated hernia, and a detail of the symptoms which attend this formidable complaint. The author remarks that the inflammation is caused, not, as in most instances of inflammation, by an increased afflux of arterial blood, but by an obstacle being opposed to the return of the blood by the veins. For this reason, the strangulated part of the intestine assumes a dark hue, even in the early stage of the complaint, which to an inexperienced eye might suggest the idea that mortification of the part had already ensued. The stricture does not, as is commonly imagined, always exist at the ring, but may take place at the aperture mentioned above, where the intestine first leaves the abdomen; and Mr. Cooper observes that it is only when existing in this situation, that it can be affected by spasm: the ring, being composed altogether of tendinous substance, is not capable of this action.

Chapter VIII, on the treatment of strangulated hernia, is one of the most valuable in the work; abounding with minute practical observations, the result of sound judgment, directed by ample experience. The means on which Mr. Cooper chiefly depends, for the reduction of the hernia, are the tobacco glister, and the application of ice. These remedies, however, too frequently fail of the desired effect, and a surgical operation is then the only resource: which, although generally regarded as of the most formidable nature, is represented by Mr. C. as by no means necessarily hazardous, but to derive its chief danger from being too long deferred. Whenever, therefore, the means for reducing hernia have been unsuccessfully adopted, the knife should be used without farther delay. Unfortunately, we know not any criterion by which the practitioner can determine the exact state of the diseased parts: but the author apprehends that, when the abdomen becomes tender and painful on pressure, we have reason to fear an inflammation of the peritoneal cavity, and consequently must augur unfavorably of the event.

In the 10th chapter the operation itself is described. Mr. Cooper advises that the abdominal ring should be divided on the outside of the sac, and that the incision should be made directly upwards, in preference to the usual method of upwards and outwards; since by this means we are certain of not injuring the epigastric artery, however it be situated with respect to the hernia. When, on opening the sac, the intestine is found to be in a gangrened state, critical as must be the situation of the patient, the case is not absolutely lost:—besides the chance of his existing with an artificial opening in the groin, (a state however, of great wretchedness, and indeed almost more to be deplored than death itself,) it is possible to restore the natural condition of the parts, by cutting out the mortified portion of the intestine, and stitching together the ends, which will sometimes unite without much difficulty. Mr. C. gives an interesting account of some experiments performed on the intestines of dogs by Mr. Thomson of Edinburgh; whence it would appear that a transverse division of them is an operation from which they quickly recover, without any extraordinary symptoms of danger being produced; while a longitudinal wound was attended with much more serious consequences.

Chapter XII. gives some practical directions for the management of the patient after the return of the protruded parts. The author is decided in his opinion that all attempts at performing a radical cure, by either cutting away or tying the sac, are not only useless but dangerous. The patient will, indeed, be more liable to the descent of the intestine than he was originally, in consequence of the enlargement which has been made of the natural openings; and it will therefore be necessary for him ever afterward to wear a truss.—We have next a description of some of the more uncommon varieties of the disease, particularly with respect to the situation of the epigastric artery and the spermatic chord; sometimes, the intestine descends on the inner side of the artery, and at other times behind the chord; in each case, contrary to its usual direction.

In the last chapter, the author describes the well-known species of hernia called the congenital; and we have an account of a singular variety, in which the intestine, although lying within the *tunica vaginalis*, was still included in a proper sac. When this case was observed, it was thought to have been unique: but a similar occurrence was described by Mr. Hey of Leeds, a short time previously to the publication of Mr. Cooper's work.

From the report which we have given of this performance, our readers will perceive that it is possessed of first-rate excellence. It unites, indeed, every qualification which can render it of value both to the anatomist and the surgeon; the descriptions are perspicuous, the practical directions are unembarrassed, and the style exhibits a specimen of that elegant simplicity which is peculiarly appropriate to books of science. Respecting one circumstance, however, we cannot with-hold our objections: we refer to the manner in which the volume is offered to the public. It is printed in very large folio, with magnificent type and paper; from its size, it is inconvenient to read, or to arrange in a library; and it is sold at the large price of two guineas. We have frequently deplored the prevailing taste for fine books, which enhances their price so much as to place them out of the reach of those who would derive most pleasure and profit from them: but we have seldom felt more regret than on the present occasion, when a work, which ought to be in the hands of every surgeon in the kingdom, is rendered inaccessible to the greatest part of the profession. The same remarks may be made on the plates as on the letter-press; they are large, and what would be called splendid; and we have no doubt that they are accurate, so far as the shape and size of the parts are concerned: but, as anatomical engravings, we think that they are very indifferent, since they are labored, heavy, and stiff, and appear to us devoid of character and spirit.

Art. V. *Sermons on Education, on Reflection, on the Greatness of God in the Works of Nature, and in the Government of the World, on Charity, and on various other Topics;* from the German of the Rev. George Joachim Zollikofer, Minister of the Reformed Congregation at Leipsic. By the Rev. William Tooke, F. R. S. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 600 in each. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1806.

No preliminary remarks on the general character and merits of M. Zollikofer, as a preacher and a writer, are necessary from us on the present occasion. He is already well known to our readers; who will be pleased to hear that these sermons are equally valuable with those which have preceded them from the same pen *, and display a similar intimate acquaintance with human nature. The same nice discrimination and animated devotion, the same good sense and appropriate diction, which prevailed in his former volumes, are also conspicuous in those which are now before us.

Agreeably to the title, several of the sermons treat on particular subjects: those *on Education* are six in number; those *on Reflection*, five: the number appropriated to the *Consideration of the Greatness of God in the Works of Nature* and *in the Government of the World* is eight; and those on *Charity*, which conclude the first volume, are twelve. The discourses in the second volume are more miscellaneous, and are thirty-three in number: but the subjects to which the greatest attention is paid are *Happiness*, and *the Holy Communion*. This volume is concluded with a delineation of the literary, moral, and religious character of M. Zollikofer, in a letter from M. Christian Garve to a friend at Leipsic.

The Sermons on Education form a regular set of discourses on the subject, and are of great excellence. We are of opinion that were this part of the work published in a separate form, it would rank highly among the many treatises which have appeared on this topic; and on account of the many rules which it contains for the right formation of young minds, it would be a very useful manual for most persons. In proof of the justice of our commendation, we make the following selection from many passages equally meritorious, from which the reader may judge for himself:

'To the general rules prescribed in our former discourse, we will to day subjoin a few that shall more especially relate to the chief particular virtues to which children and young persons should be trained up by those whose duty it is to form their hearts or their moral characters.

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* See M. Rev. Vol. xlviii. N. S. p. 163.

'The first of these rules is this: Inure them from their earliest infancy to obedience and submission. He that has not learnt this in his childhood and youth is unhappy for the rest of his life. All of us are occasionally brought into situations where it is necessary for us to submit, where we must comply, if we would not run counter to our duties, or bring harm upon ourselves and others. Either we must avoid human society altogether, renounce all its advantages and pleasures, and take up our abode in the holes of the rock, or the dens of the forest; or we must sacrifice a part of our natural liberty to the security and quiet enjoyment of the rest, subject ourselves to certain restraints, and alternately yield to each other. But how unfit must he be for this, who has, for ten, fifteen, or a greater number of years, unmolestedly followed his own inclinations, who has suffered no opposition, whose wishes for every thing he saw were so many commands uniformly submitted to by the blind indulgence of his parents and tutors, and who now all at once must adopt a quite different course of action! The time is arrived when he must make his entrance into the world. At every step he meets with obstructions. His wishes are scarcely noticed, while he expects to see all men running to fulfil them. They much rather openly oppose his desires and aims. His vanity and arrogance will be offended one while in this manner and then in another; but the disease is too inveterate to admit of a cure. Unfortunate man! Deplorable victim of extreme fondness and indulgence! How often, when once thou comest to reflection, how often wilt thou lament this cruel tenderness! How often wilt thou wish that thy parents, thy preceptors, had exerted their proper authority over thee, and taught thee obedience! O ye parents, would you spare your children these sighs, these complaints, and the miseries that extort them; inure them to discipline, I say, to discipline, for by precept and exhortation alone you will never succeed; exercise them in obedience and submission. Allow yourselves to be easily prevailed on; frequently go before their requests when they ask for things innocent and good; and shew them by facts how much you have their real satisfaction and their real happiness at heart; but never should they obtain any thing from you by force; never yield to their impetuosity or clamour; let not the tears of stubbornness melt you to an ill-timed compassion. Enjoin them nothing without mature deliberation, without sufficient reason; let the justice, the equity, the indulgence that is due to their age and weakness, be the rule of all your commands; but when once you have delivered them, never think of a repeal, but absolutely insist on the most punctual and unreserved compliance; and let neither headstrong opposition, nor artful flattery, move you to the revocation of them. Beware however of issuing too many, or too different orders at once. You will thereby lay an insupportable yoke on their necks, and in some measure compel them to disobedience; or you will make timid vassals of them, impatiently waiting for the moment when they may misuse their freedom without reproof or observation. Leave therefore to their own option whatever is in itself indifferent and can have no prejudicial influence on their morals; and be content sometimes in furnishing them with useful suggestions and reasons by which they may determine for themselves. Imitate herein the great lawgiver of the universe. Consider how much he has left to our free-agency, and how greatly he has thus facilitated our obedience to his commands! The neglect of this rule, my friends, is the principal cause that so few children learn obedience. If we will be always heaping command upon command, and regulating as it were every posture, every word, every look, every motion of the child or the youth by law, we ourselves cannot be attentive to all these commands, and must of necessity pass over many transgressions of our laws in silence; and by this means the rest of our laws and ordinances, even the weightiest of them, lose their force, and disobedience becomes habitual.'

The Sermons on the Greatness of God in the Works of Nature, and in the Government of the World, contain many pleasing contemplations on these interesting subjects. In those on the Spring of the Year, we meet with a reference to the general Resurrection, in which, although the thoughts be familiar to pious minds, the author's manner of treating them will be found gratifying:

'The renovation and embellishment of the face of the earth, the resuscitation of the life of nature, is a glorious type of the future renovation and perfection of the human race, of the general resurrection of the dead to the superior life. Yes, christians, when on some bright vernal day, I perceive all things springing from the earth, rising into light, budding, opening into bloom, pushing upwards; when I behold that which was apparently dead and corrupted, now revived, arrayed in fresh pomp, inspired with new vigour and rejoicing in its existence: my imagination immediately transports me to that grand and solemn scene which christianity bids us expect at the end of the world; then I figure to myself the final glorious triumph over all that is called death and corruption; then I hear the Son of the Father, who is the resurrection and the life, the lord and judge of men calling to the dead; lo they leave their clay-cold beds and arise from their tombs, lo the sea and the deeps, the air and the earth give up the spoils of man committed to them, lo my brethren, my sisters burst the bonds of death and of corruption, behold them all reanimated and transformed, all immortal, endowed with superior powers, restored in the most perfect state of human nature. What a scene of most astonishing revolutions and transformations! What diversity of life and enjoyment of life, of thoughts never yet conceived and emotions never yet imagined! What a harvest from the sowing of all ages, of all the thousands of years that have elapsed since the first to the last of mortals! What a glorious unravelment of all that appears to us now mysterious and incomprehensible in the ways of providence and the fortunes of mankind! And this I then expect with the firmer faith, as all that I see before me leaves me no room to doubt the inexhaustible vital energy of God and his continual superintendance over all his creatures; as I here so distinctly perceive, how glorious the Almighty is, in his care to preserve, to renew, to transmute, to transform, and reinstate all things, even the least and the meanest, and to conduct them higher from step to step and to bring them nearer to perfection. And in this belief, in this expectation I no longer shudder at the thoughts of the grave, am ready without repining to commit my clay-formed body to its parent earth, and in the mean time gladden myself with the idea, that it will hereafter as assuredly proceed forth of it, reanimated and glorified as assuredly as the Almighty, who cloaths the spring and raises the caterpillar into a winged insect, suffers none of his creatures to perish, and leaves nothing that is capable of life under the dominion of death.'

In the second Volume, the Sermon on the Miseries of a sinful Life thus contrasts the sufferings of a virtuous and a vicious character:

'In affairs of momentous concern, how greatly are ye losers, ye thoughtless and disobedient, in comparison of those who lead a truly virtuous, christian course of life! or, which burden is the heaviest, the burden of the law, of a righteous, equitable law, which we readily obey, and the obedience to which is real felicity; or the burden of a bad conscience and the dread of that punishment which is denounced against its transgressors? Which burden is the heaviest, the burden of unmerited scorn, of a transient ridicule; or the burden of inward dissatisfaction with oneself, of secret, continually persecuting reproaches? Which obedience is the easiest, the most honourable, the most comfortable, the obedience which we pay to the commands of God, the benign and gracious father of all, the commands of Jesus Christ, the mightiest, most magnanimous deliverer and lord; or the obedience which we afford to violent, unbridled, capricious lusts and passions, and to the fickle and often preposterous usages of the world? Which of the two costs more pains and toil, to refrain from a vile, iniquitous action; or, after having committed it and thereby produced much confusion and disorder within and without us, to repair all this and to satisfy oneself and others? Which of the two suffers most, the patient and meek man, who stifles his impetuosity and is always master of his temper, or the angry and resentful who yield to their passions, slavishly follow their impulses, and afterwards, when they come to reflect, are sorry for what they have spoken or done? Which of the two suffers most, the placable man, who must probably use force upon himself to suppress his feelings, and sincerely to pardon him whom he believes to have injured him, but then, as soon as that is over, has thrown off a grievous load from his heart, and can now again rejoice in God and man; or the vindictive and implacable man, who entertains hatred and malice in his bosom, thereby embitters all the charms of society, whenever he falls himself, or puts others into a rage, and must be shy alike of God and man? Which of the two suffers most, the wise man who moderates and sets bounds to his appetites, directs them always to the best objects, and then is sure of their gratification; or the slave of sensuality, who gives them free scope, cherishes them with complacency, and then can so seldom accomplish his desires, is so frequently deceived by flattering expectations? Oh how easy, how mild, is the dominion of virtue and religion in comparison of the cruel and oppressive yoke of a sinful, unchristian temper and conduct! How much heavier are the burdens borne to the end of his days by the man who leads such a life, than those which he endeavours thereby to avoid, and which so soon would cease to be burdensome to him!'

As we frequently hear remarks on the want of happiness in the marriage state, we extract a paragraph from the Sermon on the Causes of the Deficiency in Domestic Pleasure and Happiness, which may help to remove some of the evils that are the subjects of complaint:

'Defect of mutual esteem and affection is therefore the first and certainly one of the leading causes of the defect in domestic pleasure and domestic happiness. Would I court the society and the converse, could I be brisk and gay in the society and converse of one of whom I entertain an ill opinion, to whom I ascribe no good qualities, no honest sentiments, no merits in regard to myself or others, whom I think incapable of teaching me anything, of helping and assisting me in anything, or of contributing anything to my happiness? And how frequently is not this the case between relatives and members of families! How frequently is it not sordid interest or blind passion that knits the most sacred and indissoluble of all ties! And when once the charm of the purchased or inveigled prize has lost its novelty, when passion gives way to calm reflection, how soon must that connection be weakened or dissolved which was only cemented by lucre or passion! This gross deception however out of the case, how frequently do we build our domestic happiness on expectations that are contrary both to the nature of man and of things! We expect from human beings superhuman perfection: capacities without limitation, virtues without a flaw, light without shade. We expect pleasure without any trouble, joy without any appendage of sorrow and care. Is the expectation, as it cannot be otherwise, unfulfilled? we imagine ourselves deceived, defrauded; overlook all the beautiful and good that really exists in the object of our disappointment; esteem it not according to its intrinsic worth, but according to the extravagant, fantastical image which we had previously formed of it; enumerate all the real and imaginary blemishes of it with the utmost accuracy, and complain of unmerited misfortune. How can mutual esteem and affection be there, and how without it domestic happiness be enjoyed! Consequences not less pernicious frequently attend on imprudence. We should be led almost to imagine that domestic life, that the nuptial tie exempts us from the obligation of observing the rules of propriety and decorum. We therefore entirely cease from keeping a guard over ourselves and preserving a clear consciousness of our actions, resign ourselves without reserve to our natural or assumed infirmities and failings, make no scruple of shewing ourselves in an unfavourable or disgusting light, abuse the rights of familiarity and frankness even to insult, and are apt to persuade ourselves, that persons, who are so intimately connected together, have no need of reciprocal indulgence and candour. How very much, however, by such imprudent behaviour, must esteem and affection, those two main columns of domestic happiness, be shaken! How much more frequently must this sort of conduct alienate the hearts of those who are guilty of it, than unite them more completely together! How much oftener disturb and embitter their union and their intercourse, than alleviate and sweeten it! No, my pious hearers, would ye enjoy domestic happiness, raise it on the solid basis of tenderness and esteem. Never expect more of one another, than either party, according to your several capacities, endowments, education, circumstances and situation, is able to afford. Expect not from one another faultess, perfect, and uninterrupted satisfaction, but always a variety of imperfections and frailties, a variety of troubles and uneasiness. Accustom yourselves therefore to remark rather the good and excellent, than the bad and defective, that either of you possess, and be as careful to hold up to the light and to rejoice in the former, as to excuse and conceal the latter. Shew either to other the greater tenderness and indulgence, the greater opportunity and means you have of more clearly perceiving the proximate and remoter occasions of your mutual infirmities and failings. At the same time never, never lose sight yourself of what is proper and decorous; let reciprocally the other perceive as little as possible your failings and defects; let neither be indifferent to the judgment and approbation of the other, but each of you take pains to convey to the other, by the use of all legitimate and allowable means, a good opinion of yourself, or to confirm it if already entertained. Thus alone can you be animated by mutual esteem and tenderness, and when you are animated by them, what sources of domestic pleasure will they not open to you! Where will it be possible for you to seek and find greater satisfaction and felicity, than where you may safely reckon upon mutual tenderness and esteem?'

From these quotations, the reader will see how well qualified was the author for discussing the subjects which he undertook. To some, probably, his style may appear too diffuse; yet the reason of this is sufficiently explained, when it is considered that the discourses were written for the purpose of being delivered separately; and that, from an anxiety to place his subjects in a variety of lights, he could not well avoid a seeming concurrence of ideas. His mode of expression is on the whole perspicuous and impressive, often lively, and generally pleasing. His rules for the general conduct of life shew how far he studied the duties of mankind in their several relations, and are of the highest value.—Though the religious sentiments contained in these volumes may not altogether accord with those which are by us termed orthodox, yet they are not obtruded on the reader; the opinions, which differ from those that are generally received, are brought forwards only when the nature of the subject required them; and when they are expressly stated, they are offered in a conciliating manner. Those persons, who may be dissatisfied with the author on account of some of the doctrines which he teaches, will likewise be displeased with him for not more frequently quoting and using the language of scripture, and on this account will think that many of the sermons deserve rather the title of Moral Discourses than that which is given to them: but, though the subjects are certainly treated in a manner too refined and philosophical for the majority of mankind, as the congregation of the author consisted chiefly of the higher classes, the consideration of this circumstance will in a great measure justify the style which he used. Whatever objections some readers may make to his doctrines and choice of words, all pious persons must be pleased with his earnestness and animation, and must allow him ample credit for his forcible exhortations to the practice of virtue.

With respect to the translation, not having the original at hand, we cannot ascertain its fidelity: but from the character of the language we have every reason to expect that justice has been rendered to the author. We observe, however, some objectionable expressions; and we occasionally find words, which represent only general ideas, used to express particular significations; that is, words in the plural number which do not admit of a plural, such as, *existences*, *eternities*, *felicities*, *assistances*, &c. We marked also several terms which are either not sanctioned by the best writers, or are become too obsolete for discourses of this nature; such as *caducity*, *fugaciousness*, *offuscate*, *effectuate*, *appetences*, *abnegation*, *exundation*, *unimpededly*, &c. Our language has more intelligible expressions, by which the ideas here intended to be represented may be expressed, and the translator would do well to avoid using them in future. These blemishes, however, are comparatively trifling; in a work in which *effect* is more to be considered than polished elegance and refined correctness of style.

Art. VI. *A Grammar of the Greek Tongue*, on a new and improved Plan. By John Jones, Member of the Philological Society at Manchester. 12mo. pp. 360. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

An attempt to facilitate the acquisition of a language of such elegance and importance as the Greek must meet with some commendation, even though the merit of the performance should fall short of our expectations: but when a person possessed of real erudition, and critical acumen, exerts his powers in this department, his labours claim the approbation and applause of the learned world; to which he renders the most essential service. Truly laudable are his efforts who smooths the way to the perusal of those invaluable writers, whose excellence has borne the test of ages; from whom the moderns have imbibed the principles of science and of taste; and to whom they are indebted for the best models in the art of composition.

In order to succeed in an undertaking of this nature, and to improve on the labours of the learned men who have written on the subject, considerable abilities are necessary; he who attempts the task with any probability of success must be endowed with shrewdness and sagacity for the discovery of analogies, and a sound judgment to decide on them; he must be well versed in a variety of authors, and acquainted with their habits of thought and modes of expression; and he must also possess a knowlege of kindred languages, and be enabled to make use of it for the elucidation of the points under dicussion.

The title-page of the present volume informs us that the Grammar is on a *new* plan; an intimation which may probably induce the curious inquirer to examine its contents: but we are also told that it is on an *improved* plan: here the author decides on the merit of the performance, and forestalls the opinion of the reader, when it would be much more proper to leave any such improvement for the discovery of those who peruse it. Every author, who gives a work to the public on a subject which has been treated by several predecessors, may state that the plan is *new*: but, with regard to its being an *improvement*, his publication of it implies his own opinion, and therefore such an assertion is unnecessary as well as unbecoming.

In examining this grammar according to its professions, our notice is first attracted by the language in which it is written, and which is *English*: in this respect it is comparatively new, though not absolutely: but whether this be or be not an improvement is a question which will excite different opinions. To encounter the difficulties which attend the acquisition of a strange language, the use of our own seems most reasonable, because the statement of rules, of analogies, and of minute exceptions, in any other dialect, adds obstacles to no purpose; yet, notwithstanding this objection, the advocates for the teaching of Greek through the medium of the Latin are not at a loss for arguments to allege in favour of their opinion. They urge that the young classical student, whether at school or under a private tutor, is always taught Latin before Greek, and generally is not required to learn the latter until he is able, with little assistance, to read an easy author in the former: at such a period, they state, it is very proper that, while he begins another language, he should improve himself in that in which he is not perfect; and this is done by acquiring the rules of the new, written in the old. The Latin, they likewise say, has the advantage of expressing its sense in fewer words than the English; and moreover, that the Greek Grammar in Latin, although apparently adding difficulties in acquiring Greek, is in reality very seldom found to occasion such to the young student. We think that a Greek Grammar in English, for these reasons, is not likely to be adopted in schools, though it may be of considerable advantage to the private student; and its use is certainly confined to an English public.

Mr. Jones divides his work into three parts, which are subdivided into chapters: the first part relates to the elements of speech, and the declinable words: the second, to contractions, and the formation of words; and the third, to syntax, and the influence of association on the Greek language.

With Chapter I, which treats of Letter, Diphthong, and Syllable, we were much pleased, particularly the decomposition of the double letters ψ ξ ζ; the former being decomposed to the letter σ joined either to π, β, or φ, the second to the letter σ joined either to κ, γ, or χ, and the latter to the letter σ joined to τ, δ, or θ.—In the chapters on the properties of Nouns are many valuable observations; and among the rest that of ascertaining the genders either by the *signification* or *termination*. The Declensions are simplified and reduced to three; the first and second in the Westminster Grammar are consolidated; and the fourth, being the attic dialect of the third, is considered as belonging to it. All the declensions of nouns in the contracted form are referred to the third part of the work.

Mr. Jones's observations in the chapters on the origin and properties of Verbs appear to us so ingenious and important, that we shall lay some of them before our readers:

'Verbs originally were the names of things, or substantives; but by combining with them the personal pronouns, they became in consequence of the association of ideas to express not things, but the *operations* of things. The conversion of nouns into verbs is easily explained in the following manner. Suppose the personal pronouns to have become by use thus changed:

εγω —— ω I	ἡμεις —— ομεν we
συ —— εις thou	ὑμεις —— ετε ye
εν —— ει he	ἐκεινοι —— ουσι they

'Now let these in their corrupted state be annexed to any noun, for instance to οινο-ς wine; and we shall have οινο-ω wine I, οινο-εις wine thou, οινο ει, wine he; οινο-ομεν, wine we; οινο-ετε, wine ye; οινο-ουσι, wine they.

'When the attention of the speaker or hearer was fixed upon the first of these combinations, the union of the two words which signified himself

self and wine could not fail of bringing to his mind the circumstances which he had previously experienced in *connection* with that liquid; and hence he recalled the idea of *making wine*, or *tasting wine*, or *drinking wine*; consequently the two terms thus combined he naturally employed to express one of these notions. A similar process takes place with regard to the remaining five combinations, and thus have we in Greek and other languages, verbs diversified by six persons This extension of the names of things to signify the actions, which those things have been observed to exert, is founded on the law of association; and may be illustrated by a thousand instances in all languages, but in none so remarkably as in the Hebrew. This last, as being among the first, if not the very first language of men, exhibits in the clearest manner, when duly examined, every step which mankind took in the communication of their ideas by means of speech; and its verbs when stripped of the personal pronouns combined with them, appear to be nothing else than the names of things. Be it observed that this doctrine, concerning the origin of verbs, is not a matter of barren speculation; but serves to unfold much order, beauty, and simplicity in the construction of the Greek verbs, and to render their numerous inflexions more perfectly understood, and more easily retained by the learner.'—

'Conjugation is the mode in which the personal terminations of verbs are changed to express the several moods and tenses. – In the Greek tongue, there are only three of these modes, the first comprehends verbs ending in ω; the second those in μι; the third such as terminate in μαι. The two former, as they convey an active signification, may be called the *Active forms*, the last, the *Passive form*.'

In treating of the Passive Voice, Mr. Jones thus expresses himself:

'The Passive voice may be derived from the Active by annexing ομαι in the room of ω to the radical verbs. The origin of the passive form may, I conceive, be deduced from the position already laid down; viz. that verbs are the names of things, converted by the association of ideas to signify the actions of those things.

'A person having built a house, and wanting a term to convey that operation, would recur either to the *materials* employed for that purpose, or to the edifice itself. If he were a Saxon, he would derive the desired term from the former; if a Grecian, from the latter; thus he would have said *timber I*—οικιζω (οικος εγω) *house I*. Here the pronoun I connected with the materials or work, and in that case which usually expresses a person in action, represents the speaker as agent in the business. But if the same Grecian had to represent himself, not as an agent, but as one to whom the house belonged, and for whom it was built, he would then have used the pronoun in a different case—οικος μοι *house for me*. In this instance, the terms οικος μοι *house for me*, do not now, as before, coalesce as an action with its agent, but as an action with the person to whom it belongs, for whom it is intended, and in whom it terminates. Hence their combination might come to convey the idea, I *am housed* or *am built*,—for the auxiliary *am* serves only to assert that *built* or *housed* belongs to the pronoun preceding it, and to cement their union in the mind as subject and predicate.

'In the same manner, if σοι τοι (τῳ) the dative case of συ *thou* and ὁ *he* be annexed to the word οικος, now converted by this connection into a verb, we shall have οικος-σοι, οικος-τοι, *house for thee, house for him.* These combinations, by very slight changes, become οικιζ-ομαι, οικιζ-σαι οικιζ-εται, *I am built, thou art built, he is built.* In the plural number, the pronouns annexed are so much changed as to preserve no resemblance to their original state. In the dual, however, their analogy is preserved pretty free from corruption. Thus δυοιν the dative of δυω is changed into θον, which annexed to the radical verb forms the second and third persons dual; οικιζ-θον *ye* or *they two are built*. The pronoun ἡμεις *we* prefixed to θον is abbreviated into ημεθον, which forms the first person dual, οικιζομεθον *we two are built*.'

Part III. contains an account of the words which suffer contractions in their several relations; and, by a few simple rules, Mr. J. explains the variations which they undergo, whether nouns or verbs. The chapter on the Greek dialects, as far as it goes, is valuable; and those which follow on the composition of words will prove of great service in acquiring the language.

The Fourth Part contains the Syntax; and on this portion of the volume, which is very considerable, the author appears have bestowed peculiar pains. Here he summonses his various powers, his ingenuity, and his learning, to explain the numerous and anomalous idioms of this copious language; and every difficulty is confidently opposed, and laboriously explained. He hesitates not, in various instances, to depart from the first authorities, when they are adverse to his opinion; and he particularly treats of the relations of nouns, adjectives, and verbs, in all their varieties of construction, however irregular. The Prepositions are simplified and decomposed to their original roots, and their various meaning is illustrated with great ingenuity. Adverbs, conjunctions, and interjections, are also decomposed, and thus satisfactorily explained.—The last chapter treats of the influence of Association on the Greek language; and many idioms and seeming inaccuracies, which did not come within the rules of Syntax, are enforced and rendered more comprehensible by having recourse to it.

Although we have thus far spoken favourably of this treatise, we must now point out some deficiencies that occurred to us in the examination. We think that the plan is capable of considerable improvement. In order to give the greater novelty, the author has in many respects departed from the old Grammar, without sufficient cause; and we should have preferred that the many emendations here suggested had been ingrafted on the old, with only the necessary alteration. To instance a few particulars; Mr. Jones has deviated from the old division into parts of speech, which should certainly be treated each separately; from the neglect of this easy method we meet with some confusion, and we find adjectives and even participles in the chapter which professes to treat only of nouns. The other parts of speech are not kept sufficiently distinct; and as to adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, and interjections, the student does not obtain any account of them, till he is presumed to be a tolerable scholar by labouring through the Syntax, when he finds them introduced nearly at the end of the book.

Another material deficiency is the want of adequate examples, particularly of the modes and tenses of the verbs, of which the author seemed conscious at the conclusion of the work, where we find paradigms (tables) of them: but they would certainly be of greater benefit to the learner, were they placed in the part in which he treats of the verbs. The paradigms of them in the first person singular in each mode and tense, as in other grammars, would be an improvement. Paradigms of the several Dialects, as they affect the terminations of words, are also wanting. The Syntax, as it is, seems very long, and many parts are not very important to a beginner; if these parts, as well as some others, were more frequently confined to the smaller type of the volume, its size would have been lessened, and the self-teaching student would be the better enabled to judge what should first engage his attention. We noted also several inaccuracies, to which probably the author alludes when he says that he discovered some errors, after the printing of the book, and which he promises carefully to correct, should a new edition be wanted.

In his Rules for the Syntax of Verbs, Mr. Jones occasionally refines without sufficient reason. E. G.

'Rule XVI. The genitive is often used for the dative, or the dative for the genitive, as the writer is desirous of fixing the attention of his reader upon the *source*, or upon the *instrument* or *end* of the specified action.

'Thus, when Homer says of Hector, Il. viii. 235, *he would burn the ships* WITH *flaming fire*, Νηας εμπρησει πυρι κηλεω, he fixes the mind upon fire, as the instrument by which this is done; but when in another place, Il. ix. 242, he writes, Αυτας τε εμπρησειν μαλερου πυρος, *that he would burn them* FROM *fire*, he directs the attention backward to fire, as the *cause* from which their being burnt proceeded.'

If Homer were alive, we suspect that he would say that the grammarian has discovered what the poet never intended to express, for that in both phrases the latter had the same idea.

The account of the Greek prepositions is very ingenious: but in common use they could not have been employed with that precision which Mr. Jones would intimate. In the following passages, δια governs both a genitive and an accusative noun, though in both it signifies the end to which the attention is directed:

‘ Δια της επιγνωσεως του καλεσαντος ἡμας δια δοξης και αρετης, *through the knowledge of him who hath called us to glory and virtue—the knowledge of him being the means, glory and virtue the end, of our calling.*

‘ As δια signifies the end to which the attention is directed, it governs an accusative noun. Δια την ελπιδα την αποκειμενην εν τοις ουρανοις, *with a view to the hope—on account of the hope—which is laid up for you in heaven*, Col. i. 5.’

Is not the author's remark on John x. 8. an instance of hypercriticism?

‘ Our Lord having said, that he was *the door*, adds John x. 8. in reference to some false guides and impostors then living among his opponents, Παντες, ὁσοι προ εμου ηλθον, κλεπται εισι και λῃσται, *all who are come before me* (i. e *before the door*) *are thieves and robbers*. Observe, he says εισι *are*, and not ησαν *were*; which shews he meant some persons *then living*, and perhaps *present*, when this parable was delivered. Their appearance as deceivers being already made, the verb ηλθον is properly put in the past tense.’

Mr. Jones's account of the formation of the *perfect tense*, and his subsequent inferences, well merit consideration; and we may extend the same remark to his chapter on the Influence of Association on the Greek Language: which section we hope to see enlarged in a subsequent edition.

When the author apologizes for typographical errors, and other inadvertencies, which will strike the learned reader, are we to class the translation of Rom. xv. 5. among the latter, and that of a passage from Epictetus at p. 334, 5.?

Mr. Jones's method of analyzing the Greek Language is new, and his application of it to the more easy attainment of that tongue is a material improvement. As a book for the use of a tutor in instructing a limited number of pupils, his grammar deserves our recommendation; and were the deficiencies which we have pointed out carefully supplied, it would then, both for the public and the private student, be intitled to a decided preference over others.

In the preface, the author states that, should this work meet with a favourable reception, he intends to publish a Grammar of the Latin Language on the same plan; and also a Treatise on Greek Prosody. He moreover intimates that he is employed in collecting materials for a Greek English Lexicon. From the abilities discovered in the production before us, to the consideration of which we have allotted much more space than such elementary works can usually demand, we have formed a high opinion of his qualifications for the plans which he here announces; and we shall look forwards with pleasure to his future publications.

ART. VII. *The Penance of Hugo*, a Vision on the French Revolution. In the Manner of Dante. In Four Cantos. Written on Occasion of the Death of Nicola Hugo de Basseville, Envoy from the French Republic at Rome, January 14, 1793. Translated from the original Italian of Vicenzo Monti into English Verse. With two additional Cantos, by the Rev. Henry Boyd, A. M. 12mo. pp. 190. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN our notice of Mr. Mathias's Italian Tracts *, we adverted in general terms to the nature and spirit of Monti's Poem, which here appears before us in a separate and augmented form, and in an English dress, and of which it may therefore be proper now to speak more circumstantially. It opens at the moment when the spirit of its hero, (if so he may be called,) on its removal to another world, is seized by a minister of the infernal regions, and very seasonably rescued by a guardian angel. From him, Hugo learns that he is destined to enjoy eternal happiness, but not until his native land has expiated the crimes of the revolution in which he had participated; and in the mean while, he is sentenced to contemplate and deplore the scenes of public guilt and misery which must still be exhibited in his devoted country. With this view, his spirit, conducted by the angel, hovers over Marseilles, while the mob were enjoying the spectacle of a victim offered up on the guillotine. The ghost of the murdered man joins Hugo, and informs him that, in the capacity of public executioner, he had been commanded by the mob to insult the image of Christ, by putting a halter round its neck; that he was condemned to death for refusing to perpetrate this act of sacrilege; and that his soul had found grace. The two spirits embrace, and then separate, Hugo continuing his penitential progress, still escorted by his guide. Blood, gibbets, sacrilege, and desolation every where meet their sight; and at length, they reach Paris on the very morning of the execution of Louis:

'In that dread moment to the funeral stage
The monarch comes, unmov'd by mortal rage,
And mounts unterrified, and looks around

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* See Rev. N. S. Vol. xlviii. p. 13.

With inborn majesty, that spreads an awe
On them that scorn'd divine and human law,
And cruelty a short suspension found.

'Behold a wonder! with Demonian wrath *
Four sons of darkness mount the stage of death
Like men, but each an hideous vizor wore,
With strange distorted looks. A strangling cord
Was twisted close around each neck abhorred,
And every hand a bloddy dagger bore.

'O'er every visage hung with horrid shade
Their locks, like unshorn fields in ruin laid,
By Eurus in his rage: and every face
In characters of blood disclos'd a name
By justice doom'd to everlasting fame,
Foul regicides and foes of human race.

'First Ankerstrom and Damiens met the sight.
Ravaillac next, a more infernal sprite,
But, with the shadow of his hand, the last
Conceal'd his title. Soon the Stygian band
Seiz'd on their victim with remorseless hand,
And bound him for his fate with cruel haste.

'Then like his Lord, who with his latest breath,
Pray'd for the cruel authors of his death,
And cry'd "O Father, why forsake thy son "
Beneath the fatal edge, the fiend-like crew,
With force combin'd the royal victim drew,
Before his saintly orisons were done.

"Receive my spirit, Lord," he cry'd aloud,
"And save my people, save this blinded crowd."
He could no more, for now a ruffian hand
Led him beneath the steel with fatal force;
Aloft the steel was rais'd without remorse,
By a dark second of the bloody band.

'His consecrated locks another held,
And downward to the fatal block compell'd
The royal head; a fourth the fatal twine
Cut sheer, and down the forceful engine fell.
Earth shook, and ocean seem'd in rage to swell,
While Heav'n in thunder gave the fatal sign.'

The soul of the injured monarch flies to heaven, and is greeted by a host of Gallic Martyrs. Hugo then pierces through the crowd, and implores forgiveness of his earthly offences. Louis grants his suit, and enjoins him to protect the queen and the dauphin, and to stimulate the powers of Europe, particularly the Pope, to avenge his death.—A band of demons and spectres, in the meantime, crowd around the royal body, to

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'* These beings are supposed to be seen only by the two spirits.'

drink the blood, but are driven off by an angel with a fiery sword. This band is led by four regicides, and *graced* by Voltaire, Diderot, Helvetius, Rousseau, &c. The *Jansenists* are stationed in the centre; and the Atheists, headed by the author of *Le Système de la Nature*, bring up the rear. As Basseville was startled on beholding the ghost of Raynal, he is informed that, although that philosopher be still living, his spirit is among the damned, and his body animated by a fiend.—Four angels next descend to the nether world to rouse the nations to arms, and are encountered by two airy forms, on the vest of one of whom are figured the principal scenes of the revolution. All Europe prepares for war. Hugo asks how such extensive commotions are to terminate; and the angel very wisely tells him that, if he comes with him, he shall know. Here ends the original poem.

In the succeeding cantos, Napoleon holds converse with a demon, in visions of the night, and learns his future destiny from witches. The Vices boil a cauldron, and produce a direful being, y-clept *Anancus*, or Necessity. The Corsican then proceeds victoriously, abolishes the Directory, and defeats the powers leagued against him.—The supplement, therefore, furnished by the translator, still leaves the story incomplete; and the wandering spirit is dismissed with a vague assurance that truth shall finally prevail over error. Mr. Boyd's continuation of the poem likewise manifests less fertility of invention than the original cantos, and has a more pointed reference to the blood-stained career of Napoleon I. than to the destinies of Hugo de Basseville.—The whole performance, indeed, is somewhat sombre and tiresome, and will probably enjoy only an ephemerous existence. Mr. Boyd betrays a decided propensity to dark allegory and solemn numbers: but we could wish that he had exercised his genius and talents on themes of greater magnitude than the murder of a French agent in the streets of Rome. His manner, we may add, appears both more obscure and more paraphrastic than accords with the simple severity of his prototype; while the structure of his measure is by no means calculated to relieve the languor with which we peruse a grave poem on the death of a person, who was neither sufficiently conspicuous nor sufficiently virtuous to arrest general sympathy. The music and majesty of his lines are frequently marred by inadmissible rhymes: but a few detached stanzas have considerable poetical merit.

T[illegible] m is subjoined an imitation of Gray's Descent [illegible] d *The Witch of Lapland*, supposed to be written [illegible] that drove the English fleet from Brest, in

January, 1803. This minor piece, which possesses claims to praise, begins thus;

' UPROSE the fiend of Gaul with speed,
And seiz'd his fiery-footed steed,
And over sea and land he flew,
Till near the witches' den he drew;
The lofty rock, the gloomy cave
Echoed to Finland's roaring wave,
And far within the fiend's abode,
That rule the blasts and vex the flood,
" Give me a wind," the Demon cry'd,
" To sweep the broad Atlantic tide,
And drive away the British train,
That block our ports and guard the main:
A storm, a storm, to scour the sea,
And claim a noble gift from me;
Grant me a storm, and name your *price*,
My pupil gives me large *supplies*."

The Witch then asks what will be her reward; and, though the demon proffers a store of human miseries, the inseparable attendants of war and oppression, she will be satisfied with nothing less than the hand of Nelson:

" I know the hand, I hate the name,"
The fiend reply'd, with eyes of flame,
And seaward soon he took his flight,
Borne on the dragon wing of night,
And oft he search'd the sea-wolf's jaw,
And oft the shark's voracious maw.
At length a shatter'd arm he found,
And bore to Lapland's stormy bound.

' The crone her crimson flag unfurl'd,
Dread signal to the vap'ry world,
And soon her elves, with sullen tune
Drew a dim halo round the moon,
Loud and long the tempest blew,
Uptackle ran the gallant crew,
The navy furl'd her sails in *haste*,
Half-yielding to the furious *blast*.
But mightier powers had render'd vain
The compact of the hellish train,
And soon like eagles, scatter'd far
By the rude rage of windy war,
The squadrons rallied to their post,
Lining with fate the trembling coast.
Storming with rage, the Demon finds
The grey commandress of the winds,
And loud, with furious bans assail'd,
Demanding why her magic fail'd?

"Alas!" the beldam cry'd, and *shook*
Her sides with laughter as she *spoke*;
"My friend, you quite mistook my meaning,
Dead fingers from the ocean gleaning;
That hand I meant is active still,
And He that baffles all our skill,
Defends from every chance of *war*
That member with peculiar *care*
But for the spoils you and your chief,
Gave me, a treasure past belief,
They shall be paid (by hell I vow)
With tenfold usury below.'

Another publication by Mr. Boyd is the subject of the ensuing article.

Art. VIII. *The Woodman's Tale*, after the Manner of Spenser. To which are added, other Poems, chiefly Narrative and Lyric, and the Royal Message, a Drama. By the Rev. Henry Boyd, A.M. Translator of the Divina Commedia of Dante, &c. 8vo. pp. 475. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Imitations of the poets of ruder times would not often be desirable, nor are they likely to be generally successful. Their faults may be more easily copied than their beauties; and even some features, which in *their* day might be deemed attractive, will now cease to gratify the feelings, or to excite commendation. Obscurity may create something like a pleasing awe, when real grandeur is discoverable beneath, and even licentiousness may be relished when it is seasoned with irresistible humour: but when dullness or absurdity alone is shaded by the misty cloak, and grossness on the contrary appears without the alluring dress which it so much requires, weariness and disgust must be the effects produced.—If we can wholly acquit Mr. Boyd of the latter part of this charge, it will not be found that we can absolve him from the former.

The first and last pieces in this collection are the most considerable in point of extent; and, like Mr. B.'s other original effusions, they bespeak a laudable familiarity with the language and ideas of poetry, while they betray too little regard to correct judgment, good taste, or patient revisal.—The design of the Woodman's Tale is to expose the pernicious effects of indulging in the use of ardent and fermented liquors; a very commendable intention, but not very likely to be forwarded by an obscure allegory in the Spenserian stanza. By the aid of the Introduction and a few notes, we are, indeed, informed of the meaning and conduct of this very singular performance:

but we may be allowed to doubt that it will ever reclaim a single votary of Bacchus.

According to the relation of an old hermit, called Agdistes, the antient kings of the island of Ogygia originally sprang from man, but the race was afterward mixed by intermarriages with the Naiads, in spite of the artful attempts of Circe to captivate young King Crenæus. Lycurgus having banished Bacchus and Comus from Thrace, the last mentioned exile repairs to Ogygia, and gains the good graces of Ceres, who bears him a son. This wicked imp, in order that he may subject the island to the dominion of Circe, instigates the spirits of the fogs and storms to rebellion, and to assail the Naiads with the fatal charms of Circe's cup. The Sun himself conspires to effect the diabolical scheme, by drying up the fountains, and constraining the poor water-nymphs to have recourse to the baleful contents of the cup, which induce pride and madness, and force them to ascend in the form of pernicious vapour.—The offspring of Comus and Ceres next counterfeits shipwreck on the coast, and acquaints the Ogygians that he is marked out by the Delphic oracle as the victim whose sacrifice should appease the anger of Phœbus and the Naiads; that he had in vain fled from the island, since the wrath of heaven pursued him; and that he now solicited to undergo his fate. The atonement, he adds, will be complete, if they mix his remains with the sacred lymph of the Naiads, sublimed by Vulcan.—After various discussions, he is immolated in the manner which he prescribed; and to the islanders he bequeaths his children, who, like priests, are destined to appease the deities on great occasions. As the island is immediately visited by storms and calamities, the inhabitants have recourse to their lately ordained Flamens, who enjoin the performance of new ceremonies, and especially recommend a grand masked ball, which has a melancholy termination:

"Short and fallacious were their joys, for soon
The Stygian masquers dropp'd their fair disguise,
And, ranging to a loud Tartarean tune,
Display'd the features of the nether skies.
Now hideous forms on ev'ry side arise.
And threat with savage looks their trembling prey;
Each with Demonian glee his victim eyes,
Their victims stand in horrible dismay,
Irresolute alike to fly or stand at bay.

"A dragon there, voluminous and vast,
Shoots forth his dreadful length, to light reveal'd,
And clasping round his prey, secure and fast,
Keeps him awhile in deadly durance held,

Till all the poison in his veins conceal'd,
Transfus'd through ev'ry faculty, possest
His inmost soul, by social love unquell'd,
And ev'ry look and every act confest
Envy, a bosom plague, a dire, unsated guest.

'Another like a burning meteor flies,
Crossing the welkin in a summer's night,
And smites the man, till all his marrow fries
With foul concupiscence of low delight:
He longs to join the deep Circean rite,
And emulate the tenants of the sty,
And, all unconscious of his evil plight,
Forgets his lineage from the world on high,
And reckless liv'd of Blame or Scorn's retorted eye.'

Such is a short outline of this recondite fiction, for all the mysteries and concealed import of which we must refer to the author's keys and the reader's ingenuity. Mr. Boyd intimates that it is a juvenile attempt, scarcely deserving of an apology. If this be not affected modesty, we must remind him that the public are intitled to *some* respect, and may well dispense with five cantos of a dark rhapsody which seldom rouses the feelings or interests the heart.

The Royal Message, founded on the history of David and Uriah, is likewise open to various and formidable objections. In general, it is extremely hazardous to vary or to modernize the simple and popular narratives of Scripture. Nathan's affecting apologue and its forcible application, for example, must lose much of their effect when expanded into pages of blank verse. To an injudicious selection of his subject, the author has added much unnecessary complication of plot, with great display of base and intriguing characters; and, at length, he has recourse to the stale expedient of a vision, in order to introduce *Scipio Africanus* as one of the interlocutors.

The *Milesian Tales* are grafted on Irish history or traditions, and manifest none of the licence which their title might seem to imply; yet their local allusions, and the languor and obscurity which more or less pervade them, will subtract from their merit in the eyes of most readers. Occasionally, however, we meet with animated description, or touching sentiment. In the introductory stanzas to the Knight of Feltrim, the poet thus apostrophizes his former residence:

'O wood of Graigue! does fate decree
I ne'er must view thy shades again,
Nor e'er beneath a spreading tree
Rest me upon thy flow'ry plain.

'In winter's cold and summer's heat,
I sported in thy shelter green,
And heard the driving tempest beat,
Secure beneath thy holly screen.

'There oft the throstle and the lark
I tended at their matins gay,
And Sol's last beams I stood to mark,
That from the green glade stole away.' &c.

Many of the smaller pieces are complimentary addresses to individuals distinguished by rank, accomplishment, or virtues. Among these, the verses to Robert Anderson, Esq. of Edinburgh, the Monody on the Rev. Dr. Henry Leslie, and the imitation of Mr. Mathias's Italian Ode to Mr. Roscoe, perhaps deserve the preference. Some are republished from the Poetical Register; and that which is intitled *Visions of Woodstock* is said to be *the* Prize Poem for the year 1777.—We quote the opening of the Ode:

'IMITATION of an ITALIAN ODE, addressed to William Roscoe, Esq. (Biographer of Lorenzo de Medici) by T. J. Mathias, Esq. Prefixed to his new Edition of Tiraboschi's Storia della Poesia Italiana. 1803.

'While 'cross my sphere of vision borne,
By Fancy call'd, the tuneful throng,
In moving splendour like the morn
An airy squadron, flits along,
And still as thro' the fadeless grove
March the masters of the lyre,
Apollo's tree, with signs of love,
Bends to salute the hallow'd choir,
To THEE whose periods, sweetly flowing,
Charms on every theme bestowing,
Lead thro' the maze of time, with soft control
The captivated soul;
I turn, O Flamen of the Muse,
Whose potent spell renews
Her sacred lamp's extinguish'd light,
And calls new glories from oblivion's night.
Wing'd with no ignoble aim,
A sounding shaft, from Pindar's bow,
I send, and barb it with the flame
That in my breast begins to glow.
Sequester'd from the vulgar throng
Of poets, while Valclusa's spring
And Dirce's fount inspire the song,
Let me not mount on flagging wing,
While, Roscoe! thee I call,
Whose sapient hand withdrew the pall

From many a monument of ages past,
And bade their splendours all revive, with time itself to last.

'Deeds heroic, arts divine,
Live along thy classic line;
I saw, and gloried in the view,
How the nymphs of Arno drew
From Aganippe's holy well
New supplies, their springs to swell;
I saw the winds to Britain bring
All the Muses on the wing;
I saw them in their rapid race
O'er the glowing welkin trace
A path, by which the souring soul
Mounts to Fame's ætherial goal.
But oh! what means yon pale, indignant shade,
That seems their sad, forsaken haunts to mourn?
Lamenting loud yon piles in ruin laid,
The fell oppressor and the tyrant's scorn,
And all the plagues by sad Etruria borne,
While, stung to fury by the mental pest
Which memory feeds, and long by anguish worn,
Midst his immortal train alike distrest,
He shows the mould'ring throne that good Lorenzo prest.
That forge he enters, whence, with war's alarms
Untir'd the furious god of battle bore
Napoleon's axe, and midst the din of arms
Display'd it like a sceptre, dipp'd in gore,
Fashion'd of gold and steel. The frighted shore
Of Nile and Ganges heard the boast profane,
When his dire edict threaten'd to restore
The desolating range of Tamerlane,
And over Asia's climes to stretch his iron reign.
But midst the dread Vulcanian cells,
Hark! what heavenly music swells!
Old Tuscany's romantic strain
The minstrel seems to wake again,
And while imagination burns,
On THEE his earnest eye he turns,
In all the majesty of song,
While voice and hand the notes prolong.'

If we rightly appreciate Mr. Boyd's talents, they are more suited to the task of translation than to original composition; and he must still bear with us when we renew our exhortations to greater correctness in rhymes and grammar. *Year* and *bear*, *fur* and *despair*, *flood* and *brood*, *struck* and *partook*, *assail* and *deal*, *adown* and *moon*, *heard* and *veer'd*, &c. &c. &c. can never satisfy polished ears. He should likewise be aware that *thou* and *you* are not interchangeable at pleasure, in the course of the same address; and that such regimens as the following are gross violations of one of the first rules of syntax; 'that the inflammable or spirituous parts of the liquor *is* detained, &c. 'the fatal effects of excess in drinking *has* long been,' &c. 'the low laments *was* heard,'

> 'My art thro' many a yearly round
> *Have* kept the reliques free from harm.'

The dedication to the Marchioness of Downshire begins thus: 'It might seem arrogance in me, or the result of a design, too often imputed to dedications, to prefix your Ladyship's name, though by permission, to *those* trifles, had not the circumstances that led to it *gave it* a distinction,' &c. *Vertere stylum in tabulis* is a trite but important critical precept, which no writer ever neglected with impunity, but which Mr. Boyd seems to have treated with unwise contumacy.

Art. IX. *The Society of Friends, or People commonly called Quakers, examined.* By John Bristed, of the Honourable Society of the Inner Temple. 8vo. pp. 359. 6s. Boards. Mawman.

If no emotions of the liveliest gratitude will be excited among the Friends by this examination of their principles and proceedings, they must read it with much more pleasure than dissatisfaction, with much more approbation than dissent. It is probable that Mr. Bristed's arguments on the peculiarities of the Quaker system will not be very successful: but the estimable society to which they are addressed will not fail to approve the great liberality, purity, and amiableness of mind, with which he writes, and to give him full credit for the very best intentions. Respect guides his pen; and while he endeavours to convince the Friends that in some instances their system is capable of amendment, he is not silent on the excellence of their general character, but holds up their morality to universal imitation. He endeavours to persuade them to consider the subject of Tithes in a political rather than in a religious light; to review their objections to the ordinances of Baptism and the Communion; to give more encouragement to public preaching in their assemblies; to compound with their consciences in the use of the plural pronoun; to abate of the extreme singularity of their garb; to enlarge their plan of education; to allow of innocent amusements; and to conquer their prejudices against the use of *January*, *February*, &c. and of *Sunday* and *Monday*, &c. as the common names of the months of the *year*, and the days of the *week*. All his objections and expostulations, however, are lost in the warm encomium which he bestows on them for the christian simplicity of their worship, and the exemplariness of their moral conduct. Their abhorrence of oaths, and their aversion from gaming and field sports, are noticed with praise; while the tendency of their plan of education to generate amiable qualities, and of their whole system to form valuable members of society, are just grounds for Mr. B.'s extreme partiality to the society of Friends: of whom he says, 'I have no words sufficiently forcible to represent the swelling sensations of my soul, when I contemplate the high standard of morality erected by the *Society of Friends*. Honesty, decency, sobriety, moral restraint, abhorrence of all violence and blood, charity, kindness, benevolence, and a long catalogue of other virtues, claim the applause and the approbation of all the human race to be poured in one full tide of tributary gratitude and admiration towards the disciples of Barclay.' To this warm testimony of applause, he adds, 'Let my life be the life of the Friends, and let my last end be like theirs.'

Into this Essay, which professes in the title to be merely an examination of the principles of a particular society, Mr. Bristed has introduced subjects of general interest, and discussed them at considerable length. Distinct dissertations are inserted on the fatal effects of Ignorance, and on the importance of Knowlege. These are followed by a detailed plan of Education, and by remarks on our Poor Laws. Mr. Bristed's observations are so manly and rational, that we wish he had assigned these parts of the present volume to a separate publication. His hints on the subject of education are deserving of general attention, for if young persons could be trained up on his plan, they could not fail of becoming valuable men. The following remarks on the necessity of application are not only just, but cannot be too often enforced; since habits of industry are essential to the improvement, virtue, and comfort of the individual.

'The pupil should be early taught that industry is the foundation of all power, both national and individual; that the weight of mighty empires rests entirely upon the shoulders of productive labour. But, in order to bring it more home to his own business and bosom, let it be earnestly inculcated on his mind, that no enjoyment or advantage on earth can be obtained without long continued, and steadily directed previous exertion.

'This truth is the more necessary to be enforced, because, unfortunately for the interests of humanity, it is a too generally received opinion, that it is only incumbent on comparatively slow and weak minds, to labour and to toil, and that men of quick and of brilliant talents can perform whatsoever they list by mere fits and starts of exertion, without having recourse to patient industry But it is now full time that such a dangerous mistake should be swept away, and obliterated from the tablets of recorded error, and that men should be taught to know, that without undivided and vigorous application, nothing is great, nothing is strong; that men of genius have no other way of acquiring knowledge than by that of attention and observation, and that without labour and diligence, without directing all the efforts and all the exertions of intellect to one great point, the brightest abilities spend their fires to no purpose, and the most exalted understandings shine only as momentary meteors, whose feeble and divergescent rays shed a faint and a fleeting gleam, and are then for ever shrouded in the thickest night, and involved in the most impenetrable darkness.'

We shall subjoin to this extract Mr. B.'s comment on History, as it is and as it ought to be written, not because it is new, but because it exhibits a trait of the benevolence of his mind.

'It were much to be wished, that history could be somewhat diverted from her present course into her proper channel, namely, the consideration of the manners and condition of the great mass of the people at different periods of time; marking out the causes which have retarded or accelerated the progressive march of the human intellect towards a higher degree of perfection; and dwelling more slightly upon the atrocities of those who "wade through slaughter to a throne, and shut the gates of mercy on mankind," who "cry havoc and let slip the dogs of war," whose steps are traced in the blood of myriads of their fellow creatures, and whose progress is marked only by the desolation of the fairest provinces of the earth. These horrible transactions, which are a libel on the understanding and the virtue of mankind, should be passed over rapidly, and with expressions of abhorrence; while our chief attention should be directed by the historian to those means by which the knowledge, the happiness, and the virtues of mankind, have been augmented and advanced.

'But is this the line of conduct which historians pursue? No. They are continually endeavouring to instil into our minds an admiration and envy of the honour and the glory of warlike nations; that is, in other words, the butchery and murder of mighty empires. Read the histories of Greece, of Rome, of France, of England, and you will read little else but one continued series of bloodshed and of murder. And these are celebrated by their historians as splendid, brilliant, powerful nations; but where does the phrase *happy nation* occur in the records of these sages of literature? Happiness dwelleth only in the tents of peace and of virtue: she is frightened from those spots where the sounding of the clarion to battle, and the trampling of armed hoofs is heard, where the blood-red banner of military desolation is seen to float upon the wings of the wind.

'Where are the historians who have been influenced by this hallowed and sacred truth? Have not all been chiefly intenton describing battles, and victories, and armies, and triumphs; rather seeking to affix the names of *great* and *glorious*, than of *just* and *good*, to kingdoms and to empires? Have they not bequeathed to posterity a mass of gorgeous misery, and industriously varnished over the evils and the horrors of sanguinary and tumultuous revolutions? Have they not hidden the deformity of vice from our eyes, by throwing over it the splendid veil of genius?'

On the topics of mathematics and philosophy, Mr. B. sometimes goes out of his depth. At p. 206, he says:

> 'Perhaps one of the greatest errors into which mankind have fallen, is the application of the mere mathematical method of reasoning to physics; from which must inevitably result a partial conclusion from partial premises: as if a man should reason thus:—animals have ears—but a fish is an animal, therefore fishes hear: he would be miserably mistaken in his mode of argumentation, because he totally disregards the difference of the mediums in which land animals and fishes live, their different structures, and the different purposes which they were intended to serve in the œconomy of nature.'

What is here meant by a mathematical method of reasoning, it is difficult to conceive. The argument is logical, but it is bad logic, and the conclusion which Mr. B. would resist is philosophically correct. If fish possess any parts analogous to our organs of hearing, and they live in a medium capable of vibrations, similar to the air with which we are surrounded, it is very natural to believe that fish enjoy the faculty of hearing.

These pages are besprinkled with poetic extracts; and Beattie's Minstrel in particular is laid under heavy contribution. The whole, we are informed, was written between the hours of twelve at midnight and two in the morning, after toilsome days spent in a special-pleader's office, with a frame enfeebled by disease, and with a heart saddened and depressed. Indeed, Mr. B. gives so affecting a picture of himself, that it is impossible not to pity him. By the deepest contrition, he amply atones for the sweeping satire and personal sarcasm which he indulged in a former publication, called the *Adviser*; (see Rev. Vol. xliii. N.S. p. 334) of which work a friend of Mr. B. was reported to be the author, but to which, it afterward appeared, he was only a partial contributor; Mr. Bristed being in fact the writer of it.

ART. X. *The Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor.* Vol. IV.* or Nos. XIX—XXIV. 8vo. 1s. each Number. Hatchard, Becket, &c.

MANKIND, considered in the aggregate, are the creatures of the civil and religious institutions under which Providence has given them birth; and their sentiments and habits are moulded by the faith, laws, and usages of their country. Hence arises the difference observable between people of different nations, and hence we may account for their traits of moral character. Exceptions may be made to all general rules: but causes, which universally operate on the great mass of the people, as regularly produce their effects as any cause in the physical world. If, therefore, the institutions of society possess any radical defects, and the general system pervading any of its departments be faulty, the efforts of individuals to resist it can be merely local and temporary. The force with which the system acts is steady and constant on every part of the vast machine; while the individual opposing force acts only as a solitary impulse, or at most as detached impulses, and not on the spring or master-wheel, but on the remote and subordinate parts of the machinery. Whenever, consequently, private persons form themselves into societies, and endeavour either to stem the torrent of national vice or to remove the causes of national misery, it is always found that the good which they accomplish is very circumscribed, and that the momentum of evil ultimately overpowers the enthusiasm of the virtuous. On this ground, much as we applaud the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor, and willing as we are to afford them our assistance in their benevolent occupations, we cannot foster any sanguine expectation that the general condition of the Poor will be bettered by their limited exertions. To a certain extent, and indeed, in some places, good will be effected; and to the Christian this thought will be a source of pleasing reflection, while he may despair of mending the world, or of driving poverty and vice out of it.

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* For our account of Vol. III. see M. R. Vol. xlv. N. S. p. 422.

In an introductory letter to this volume, addressed to Mr. Addington (now Lord Sidmouth), Mr. Bernard proposes to benefit the Poor, by the prevention of vice and contagion, by the promotion of virtue and industry, and by the diffusion of moral and religious education. Under the first of these heads, he notices the pernicious effects which the general sale of *ardent spirits*, annual *lotteries*, and the unmeasured and unregulated extension of *manufactures*, have on the morals and condition of the Poor: but, while the laws encourage these pests, and the government derives a profit from ardent spirits and lotteries, the established evil will continue to operate generally, though an individual may succeed in preventing the sale of ardent spirits in a country village over which his power extends. A clergyman, by uncommon assiduity, may reform the poor of his parish, and render their condition comfortable: but if the Law does not favor the poor, the general 'scale of their morality and happiness will be low.' A lottery not only legalizes gaming, but offers a temptation which the poorer classes cannot resist; and while this expedient for raising money is adopted by the state, no measure of this Society can prevent the sad effects which Mr. Bernard enumerates.

An entire remedy for the evils resulting from *Mendicity*, we are told, cannot obtain till some liberal and enlightened plan of police be adopted; and we may say of other moral maladies affecting the poor, that for the general cure we must look to a system of well digested and well executed laws.

These remarks are not made to undervalue or to abate the labours of this Society, but to explain the cause of its partial success; to direct the attention of the Legislature to the same object; and to urge Mr. Bernard to point his arguments, not in a complimentary style to the ministry, but directly and fully to that body in the State, whose duty it is to revise those parts of our code which respect the Poor, and to consider how far it is right to sacrifice the morals of the multitude on the altar of Finance.

We perfectly coincide with Mr. B. in his statement of the effects of a little property on the poor. "It communicates a charm (as Dr. Paley remarks) to whatever is the object of it;" and the cottage, the garden, the cow, or the pig, are more essential in promoting industry, prudence, and stability of conduct, than many persons in the present day are inclined to believe. All these plans, institutions, and charities, which foster habits of neatness and regularity among the poor, and which assist them, *without taking the care of themselves off their own hands*, are most likely to produce good.

Mr. B. concludes his introductory letter with some pertinent remarks on the subject of Education, which it is unnecessary for us to detail.

Report 19. (the first No. of Vol. iv.) contains Extracts from accounts of a Free Chapel in West-street Seven Dials; of a Charity for Lying-in Women at Ware; and of the Cotton Mills at Rothsay in the Isle of Bute; in which it is said that attention is paid to health and morals: but, as the time of working is from 6 in the morning to 7 in the evening, the interest of the proprietors is more consulted than the health of the working children, which must suffer by such a continuance of labour in heated apartments. To this account is added a report of a select Committee of the Society, on some observations on the late Act respecting Cotton Mills, and on the result of Mr. Hey's visit to a cotton mill at Burley; with a subjoined copy of the abovementioned observations, and the resolutions of the magistrates of the county o Lancaster and of the West Riding of the county of York of the subject. Here we read of proprietors 'with princely fortunes,' and of poor night-working apprentices, who labour from seven in the evening to six in the morning: on which the Reporters thus very spiritedly comment. 'If (say they) we were to read in the history of some part of Asia, or Africa, an account of children who, from seven to twelve years, or from eight to thirteen years of age, were doomed to *unceasing labour every night*, without the glad and natural return of day,—without a few minutes of respite for their meals,—and, (in the winter half years at least) without even an half hour for that relaxation which is the comfort of mature age, but the essential possession of the young, should we not *shudder* at the perusal? Should we give very willing credit to any detail that was subjoined of the *health and happiness* of these children? And if (to pursue the consideration) the government of that country should have prepared for the progressive emancipation of these children, at the end of two years, what language should we hold as to those, who would unite to prevent their receiving the benefit of so just and politic a law?'

To sacrifice the rising generation of the poor, in order to gratify the avarice of manufacturers with princely fortunes, or for considerations of revenue, is in the highest degree unwise as well as unfeeling; and we warmly applaud the magistrates of Lancaster and of the West Riding of the county of York, in refusing to allow the *apprenticing of poor children* to the masters of Cotton Mills, by whom apprentices are obliged to work in the *night time*, or for an unreasonable number of hours in the day. It will be some relief to the humane to find, by this report, that many Cotton mills are now worked in conformity to the principles of the late act. For the sake of the poor, and indeed of the country at large, we hope that the act will be universally enforced.

The next paper presents 'an account of the dreadful effects of dram-drinking, with directions for those who are desirous of returning to sobriety and health.' Dr. Willan, the author of this essay, asserts that considerably more than *one eighth* of all the deaths in the metropolis are occasioned through excess in drinking *spirits*. Ought, then, Gin-shops to be licensed? Bishops may preach, and Societies for the Suppression of Vice may be instituted: but, while the retailers of ardent spirits are upheld by law, can there be any hope of extensive reformation, especially in a crouded capital?

No. 20 gives details of a supply of blankets for the poor at Hinxton (a charitable measure, wisely conducted,)—of a Society in West-street, for the relief of their poor neighbours,' who were to be sought out by the visitors,—of a supply of food and employment to cottagers' families at Mongewell,—of the introduction of the Straw Platt at Avebury.—(Mr. Bernard speaks in high terms of the effects of this manufacture, and endeavours to obviate every objection which had been urged against it,)—and of the Ladies' Schools, and some other charities at Leeds. To these accounts, are added Hints for the manufacture of Split Straw, and Advice to Foundling Apprentices, on the termination of their apprenticeship.

In No. 21 we have accounts of a contagious fever at Kingston upon Hull—of the mode of introducing the new Rumford Cottage Grates in Cottages (an useful paper)*,—of the Montgomery and Pool House of Industry,—of a Sunday school, at Kirkstall, near Leeds,—and of a school for poor children, at Fincham. To these are added 'a Copy of the regulations of the Society in West-street,' mentioned in the preceding number, and 'a statement as to the reception and management of the children in the Foundling-hospital at London.' This statement is highly creditable to the Governors of this useful charity.

No. 22. relates to the Ladies' Committee for promoting the education and employment of the Female Poor,—to a Lying-in Charity, at Woolwich,—to the provision made for the poor at Weymeswould,—to a Charitable Bank at Tottenham for the savings of the poor (how tantalizing!)—to the parochial returns lately made with regard to the state of education in Ireland †,—to a school in the Borough-road, in which education is conducted with singular economy and dispatch,—and to the House of Refuge at Dublin, a benevolent ayslum. A long Appendix is subjoined, the articles of which we must be excused from enumerating.

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* Mr Plumtree remarks; 'In many places, money is expended by gentlemen to purchase firing for the poor; but I really believe that 5s. for a *Rumford grate*, and the loan of the money for fixing it, to be paid by installments, would go farther in warmth, comfort, and neat appearance, than ten bushels of coals, and that not only for one year, but for every succeeding year.'

† These returns are from 202 parishes: the evidence collected from which is that *above two-thirds* of the poor in Ireland are *entirely* without instruction or the means of education; that whole parishes are without a bible; that some *uncharactered itinerants* wander from parish to parish, and teach the poor in some ditch, covered with heath and furze, for want of a school-room; and that the Irish poor at the present time are extremely anxious that their children should have the benefit of instruction. Mr. Bernard remarks on this report that the state of Ireland evinces something defective in point of true policy, and that individual exertions to remedy

The 23d Number is occupied by describing the Mortlake Friendly Society for Women,—a School near Hawkstone, in the County of Salop,—a provision lately made in the island of Tortola; with several papers by way of Appendix, &c.

No. 24 (being the last of this volume) relates to the mode of employing the parish children at Birmingham, and to a Provision for the Poor at Ongar during Sickness. The Appendix includes, among other articles, Lists of the Committee, and Subscribers to this Society.

It is pleasing to trace, in these communications, the benevolent exertions of individuals; and to observe the various efforts made by Christian charity, to correct the vices and miseries of the times.

Art. XI. *The Life of John Milton.* By Charles Symmons, D.D. of Jesus College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 565. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson, &c.

Often as the biographical canvas has been covered with portraits of the author of "Paradise Lost," we cannot regard this additional delineation of him as superfluous. Indeed, could the departed spirit of Milton himself be conscious of sublunary transactions, it would derive no inconsiderable gratification from this generous and masterly exertion in behalf of his injured fame: it would contemplate with high satisfaction a clergyman of the Established Church boldly standing forwards to repel the shafts of party-malice and detraction, and assiduously occupied in bestowing ample justice on his distinguished talents and virtues: it would perceive that the *cordatior ætas*, which his prophetic soul anticipated, and the prospect of which solaced him in "the evil days" of which he complained, was no visionary anticipation, but that the bright beams of his reputation were destined to dissipate those mists and clouds which his enemies had raised to sully or obscure their effulgence. Every measure, which the ingenuity of narrow-minded hostility could invent, has been employed to undermine his character; and prejudice has feasted with delight on the slanders and insinuations, which, in the shape of history, biography,

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remedy the evil will be ineffectual without the concurrent and regular support of Government.

graphy, and criticism, have been levelled against this our d tinguished countryman: but, as truth always gains streng and glory from the contests which error imprudently provok so men of great and virtuous minds rise ultimately in the regard and estimation of the world, in consequence of the mea attempts of time-serving detractors.

Hume, Warton, and Johnson in particular, looked with "eyes askance" on the stern republican Milton; and because they did not approve of his political and religious principles, they have been unjust to his memory. A zealous and an able advocate, however, here volunteers the defence of our great epic poet against all his enemies; and in the ample view which is taken of his life and writings, Dr. Symmons has composed what we may venture to pronounce a complete and finished picture of him. Being a professed whig, and enamoured of the principles of civil and religious liberty, which are interwoven with and constitute the golden threads of the British Constitution, Dr. S. enters on his office *con amore;* he venerates the character which he undertakes to represent; and he apologizes for the republican of the time of Charles I., without fear of being branded as a preacher of republicanism at the present day, when we enjoy a form of government fraught with blessings which no republic or purely democratic system is calculated to bestow. We are disposed to offer no ordinary measure of approbation of the magnanimity and ingenuousness with which this biographer avows his principles, and on the line of conduct which he has pursued in the memoir before us.

> 'For the political sentiments discoverable in my work (says Dr. S.) I am neither inclined, nor, indeed, able to offer an apology. They flow directly from those principles which I imbibed with my first efforts of reflection, which have derived force from my subsequent reading and observation, which have "grown with my growth, and strengthened with my strength." If they should, therefore, unhappily be erroneous, my misfortune, as I fear, is hopelessly irremediable, for they are now so vitally blended with my thought and my feelings, that with them they must exist or must perish. The nature of these principles will be obviously and immediately apparent to my readers; for I have made too explicit an avowal of my political creed, with reference to the civil and the ecclesiastical system, of which I am fortunately a member, to be under any apprehensions of suffering by misconstruction. If any man should affect to see more deeply into my bosom than I profess to see myself; or to detect an ambush of mischief which I have been studious to cover from observation,—that man will be the object, not of my resentment, but of my pity. I shall be assured that he suffers the infliction of a perverted head or a corrupt heart, and to that I shall contentedly resign him after expressing a simple perhaps, but cer-

tainly a sincere wish for his relief from what may justly be considered as the severest of human evils.

'I belong to a fallible species, and am, probably, to be numbered with the most fallible of its individuals: but I am superior to fraud, and am too proud for concealment. Truth, religious, moral, and political, is what alone I profess to pursue; and if I fancied that I discerned this prime object of my regard by the side of the Mufti or the grand Lama, of the wild demagogues of Athens or the ferocious tribunes of Rome, I would instantly recognise and embrace her. As I find her, however, or find a strong and bright resemblance of her in my own country, I feel that I am not summoned to propitiate duty with the sacrifice of prudence, and that, conscious of speaking honestly, I can enjoy the satisfaction of speaking safely. Without acknowledging any thing in common, but a name, with that malignant and selfish faction which, surrendering principle to passion, inflicted in the earlier periods of the last century, some fatal wounds on the constitution, or with those men, who in later times, have struggled, in the abandonment of their party and its spirit, to retain its honourable appellation,—I glory as I profess myself to be a whig, to be of the school of Sommers and of Locke, to arrange myself in the same political class with those enlightened and virtuous statesmen, who framed the Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement, and who, presenting a crown, which they had wrested from a pernicious bigot and his family, to the House of Hanover, gave that most honourable and legitimate of titles, the free choice of the people, to the Sovereign, who now wields the imperial sceptre of Britain.'

Such a writer is peculiarly calculated to be the biographer of Milton; especially when he brings to the task diligence of research, and a mind replete with learning and taste, chastised by sound judgment.

Though Mr. Hayley, in his Life of Milton, prefixed to an edition of his Poetical Works, (of which we gave some account, Vol. xvi. N. S. p. 121.) has been actuated by a motive equally honourable with that of the present author, he was not so minute in his examination, and in the display of justificatory evidence, nor so forcible in argument. Dr. Symmons does not, however, arrogate superiority on that head, but vindicates his publication of this new memoir on the ground that

'The cause of morals, and of the best interests of man, seems to justify that indignation, which would brand, again and again, the hand lifted in violation of the illustrious dead. The dead, indeed, are at rest from their labours, and, far from the reach of human malice, are in possession of their reward; but it is discouraging to the weakness of the living, and is consequently calculated to diminish the incentives to virtuous exertion, when it is perceived that no endowments of nature, no accumulations of knowledge, no just and sacred appropriation of talents, can secure the distinguished mortal from those insults of posthumous calumny, which may bring him from the eminence that he has gained, and may level him with the vulgar of t earth.'

In Dr. S. are combined the biographer, the historian, and t critic: in the first of these characters, he presents us with th circumstances of Milton's life; in the second, he animadver on the prominent features and characters of the times in whi he lived: and in the last, he judiciously comments on his pro and poetical works.

It is not necessary for us to follow the writer through tl several incidents of our great poet's life, which are well know but the remarks which they suggest often merit attention, well for their vigor as for their accuracy; and on on some di puted points, the arguments and documents here produced a pear to us very satisfactory. After Dr. S.'s examination, t idle tale of Milton having been corporeally punished at colle will be no more repeated; and the reasons for the part whi he acted on his return from Italy, at the commencement of t civil wars, can be no longer mistaken.—It is well known th Dr. Johnson, (Lives of English Poets, Vol. i. p. 141.) in a verting to the conduct of Milton on this occasion, exults on l apparent inactivity, and hastily pronounces that "this is the p riod of Milton's life from which all his biographers are inclin to shrink:" but Dr. Symmons brings evidence to repel the sn of the tory at the republican. He clearly proves, from a passa in the *Defensio Secunda*, that the part which Milton assign to himself was taken with much deliberation, and is justifi by the reasons which he alleges for his choice. We shall g the passage of his present biographer relative to this point, t gether with a quotation from the *Defensio Secunda*, which now little known; and which probably Dr. Johnson ne read, since otherwise he could not have affected such me ment at Milton's "great promises and small performance."

'Determined, from his first acquaintance with the struggles of country, to devote himself to her service, he did not hesitate w respect to the part which he was to act. Conscious of his o proper strength, and sensible that genius, armed with knowle was a power of far greater and more extensive efficiency than bodily force of any individual, he decided in favour of the pen agai the sword; and stationed himself in the closet, where he was him an host, rather than in the field, where every muscular common n would be his superior. This is substantially the account which have from himself; and the motives of his conduct must obtain approbation as honourable and wise.*'

" * *Atque illi quidem Deo perinde confisi, servitutem honestissimis a pepulere: cujus laudis etsi nullam partem mihi vindico, á reprehens*

ta

It has also been alleged against Milton that he was unamiable as a family man: but it should be recollected that the evidence on oath, found in the Prerogative Registry, with Milton's nuncupatory will, (and the whole of which has been given to the public in Mr. Warton's second edition of Milton's Juvenile Poems,) goes to prove that our "blind Mæonides" was *more sinned against than sinning*; that his daughters were very unkind to him; that they even sold his books to "the dunghill women," as the witness calls them; and that they endeavoured to persuade his servant to defraud him in his marketings. In all family disagreements, however, the probability is that *there are faults on both sides*: on which side the greatest fault lay in this instance, it were perhaps now equally useless and vain to inquire: but while any doubt remains, it is obviously unfair to form a strong accusation of Milton on insufficient evidence.

Respecting the *purity* of Milton's political conduct, in connection with Cromwell, we shall have some remarks to offer towards the conclusion of this article.

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tamen vel timiditatis vel ignaviæ, siqua infertur, facilé me tueor. Neque enim militiæ labores et pericula sic defugi, ut non alia ratione, et operam multò utiliorem, nec minore cum periculo meis civibus navarim, et animum dubiis in rebus neque demissum unquam, neque ullius invidiæ, vel etiam mortis plus æquo metuentem præstiterim. Nam cúm ab adolescentulo humanioribus essem studiis, ut qui maximé deditus, et ingenio semper quám corpore validior, posthabitâ castrensi operâ, qua me gregarius quilibet robustior facilè superasset, ad ea me contuli, quibus plus potui; ut parte mei meliore et potiore, si saperem, non deteriore, ad rationes patriæ, causamque hanc præstantissimam, quantum maximé possem momentum accederem."

"Relying on the assistance of God, they, indeed, repelled servitude with the most justifiable war; and though I claim no share of their peculiar praise, I can easily defend myself against the charge, (if any charge of that nature should be brought against me) of timidity or of indolence. For I did not for any other reason decline the toils and the dangers of war than that I might in another way, with much more efficacy, and with not less danger to myself, render assistance to my countrymen, and discover a mind neither shrinking from adverse fortune, nor actuated by any improper fear of calumny or of death. Since from my childhood I had been devoted to the more liberal studies, and was always more powerful in my intellect than in my body, avoiding the labours of the camp, in which any robust common soldier might easily have surpassed me, I betook myself to those weapons, which I could wield with the most effect; and I conceived that I was acting wisely when I thus brought my better and more valuable faculties, those which constituted my principal strength and consequence, to the assistance of my country, and her most honourable cause."

Not satisfied with rescuing the fame of Milton from unm[illegible]rited aspersion, and with pursuing his detractors to their co[illegible]plete discomfiture, Dr. Symmons looks forwards with poet[illegible]c enthusiasm to remote posterity, and predicts that the reput[illegible]tion of his author will outlive the British Empire. Speakin[illegible] of the Juvenile Poems, he says:

> 'Although these poems obtained some early notice, the number of their admirers was for a long time small. Even from the wits of our Augustan age, as the age of Addison and Pope has sometimes been called, their share of notice was inconsiderable: and it is only in what may be considered as the present generation, that they have acquired any large proportion of their just praise. Their reputation seems to be still increasing; and we may venture to predict that it will yet increase, till some of those great vicissitudes, to which all that is human is perpetually exposed, and which all must eventually experience, shall blot out our name and our language, and bury us in barbarism. But even amid the ruins of Britain, Milton will survive: Europe will preserve one portion of him; and his native strains will be cherished in the expanding bosom of the great queen of the Atlantic, when his own London may present the spectacle of Thebes, and his Thames roll a silent and solitary stream through heaps of blended desolation.'

To Dr. Johnson's remark on the *Epitaphium Damonis*, that it is written with "the childish affectation of pastoral life," it is here replied:

> 'Affectation is every where a just object of reprobation; but how a writer can, with propriety, be said to be guilty of it, for employing any allowed and established species of composition as the vehicle of his thoughts, is more than I can possibly comprehend. When Milton chose to embody his sorrow in the form of a pastoral, to invoke the powers of song, who once warbled on the plains of Sicily, and to trace the steps of Theocritus and Virgil, he was not aware that he could be exposing himself to the charge of childish affectation.'

As an historian, Dr. S. presents us with some strictures on the character of Laud, in which his lenity struggles for a time with his love of justice: at last, however, the scale preponderates against the persecuting arch-bishop, and his conduct receives merited chastisement. If history indeed be designed to teach, it must learn magnanimously to condemn, as well as cordially to applaud; and he who writes to promote the cause of virtue must be inspired by a sacred reverence for truth. While the present author avows his attachment to the Church of England, he reprobates persecution as a measure of promoting her interests, and heaps on the memory of Laud the odium to which his cruel bigotry is justly amenable. With not less freedom has Dr. S. spoken of the prince than of the prelate. His account of Charles I. we shall transcribe:

'Separated from the cause of the monarchy and of the church of England, the cause of Charles is much more open to assault than it is susceptible of defence. If he has been lowered beneath his just level by his enemies, he has been proportionably raised above it by his friends, and, with a nice regard to truth, we may probably place him in the central point between Nero, to whom he has been resembled by the former, and either of the Antonines, above whom he has been advanced, not without a degree of prophane temerity, to the honours of sainthood and martyrdom by the latter. His private life was not, perhaps, liable to censure, as it was blemished only with common imperfection; but his public conduct betrayed the violence of a despot, with the duplicity and equivocating morality of a follower of Loyola [*].'

Of the style of Milton's polemic writings, the following is a correct delineation:

'His language, is every where original, figurative, and bold: but his sentences are either not sufficiently or not happily laboured. His words, attentive only to sense, appear to rush into their places as they can; and whenever their combination forms an harmonious period, the effect looks like the result of chance, unconcerted and unheeded by the writer. Force is that character of style which he principally affects, and, that he may obtrude his mind with weight and impression on the mind of his reader, he scruples not to avail himself of the coarsest images and expressions. His object is to array himself in strength; and, not satisfied with making us to understand his meaning, he must, also, make us to feel it. His matter and his manner are often equally erroneous; but his deficiencies are sometimes concealed from us by those flashes of imagination, which cover his rough pages, and are sometimes pardoned by us in consequence of that conviction, which he enforces, of the thorough honesty of his heart.'

To "The Defence of the People of England," particular attention is given; large extracts are made from it, to justify the praise of the biographer; and in a note the Doctor vindicates his hero from a censure unwarily thrown on him by the present enlightened Bishop of Landaff, for having asserted that the Reformers on the Continent entertained political principles similar to his own.

The suspicions of Milton that Charles was not the author of the Icon Basilike are here fully justified; and the readers of Hume should refer on this subject to Dr. S., who corrects the historian.

When we consider the unpropitious and even dispiriting circumstances under which the immortal poem on "*Paradise Lost*" was produced, we have additional reason for regarding it as a monument of intellectual vigor, and creative energy, and perseverance, which can very rarely meet with a parallel. It is here compared to 'a pine on the rocks of Norway, ascending to its majestic elevation beneath the inclemency of a dreary sky, ar assailed, in the same moment, by the fury of the ocean at i feet, and the power of the tempest above its head.'

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[*] The character of Cromwell is sketched with an equally masterly hand, p 376.

Long specimens of Milton's Latin poems, with translation annexed, some by Dr. S. himself, and others by his friend Mr Wrangham, are interwoven in the narrative; and it is observed that

> 'Immediately conversant with the great masters of composition he adopts their taste with their language; and, with the privilege, as with the ease of a native, assumes his station in their ranks. For fluency and sweetness of numbers; for command and purity of expression; for variety and correctness of imagery, we shall look in vain for his equal among the latin poets of his age and his country. May, the continuator and imitator of Lucan; and Cowley, whose taste and thought are English and metaphysical while his verse walks upon Roman feet, will never, as I am confident, be placed in competition with our author by any adequate and unprejudiced judge.'

To the sentence of this critic we subscribe: but we are sorry to add that, as a poetical translator, his verse is defective. Such lines as the following cannot be praised:

'All my day is study or is song.'

'And child and father own the one though varied God.'

as a version of

"*Dividuumque Deum genitorque puerque tenemus.*"

'From dark fotgetfulness, as time rolls on,
Your power shall snatch the parent and the son.'

As a poetical translator, we are constrained to give the preference to his friend Mr. Wrangham.

In adverting again to the republicanism of Milton, his profession of which is regarded by some, and his supposed dereliction of which is deemed by others, as fixing a deep and indelible stain on his character, Dr. Symmons first invites us to contemplate the blessings of the British Constitution as settled at the Revolution, and then enters on the apology for his hero by reminding us of the different political principles which were current in his time:

> 'In Milton's days the political prospect was far less alluring; and, from the spectacle before him, a wise and a good man might very justifiably surrender himself to the impulse of different impressions.
>
> 'Some of the great component parts of the British constitution, (for the liberties of England are not the creatures of yesterday.) had, long before, been in existence: the Parliament, with all its pre-eminences of power, could boast, in fact, of its Saxon pedigree; the common law of England subsisted in its mature vigour; and the trial by jury, with an origin to be traced to the remotest times, offered its equal justice to the criminal and the innocent: a concurrence of unfortunate

fortunate circumstances had, however, disordered the machine, and reduced it, in the middle of the seventeenth century, to little more than a ruin and a name. The impetuous power of the Tudors, springing from the disastrous consequences of the wars between the factions of York and Lancaster, had overleaped every barrier of the constitution; and the ambition of the Stuarts, at a period less favourable to the exertion of lawless prerogative, had diligently followed in the track of their insolent and tyrannical predecessors. On whatever side he looked, Milton saw nothing but insulted parliaments, arbitrary taxation, illegal and sanguinary tribunals, corrupted and mercenary law, bigotted and desolating persecution. With that ardent love of liberty, therefore, which always burns brightest in the most expanded and elevated bosoms; and fresh from the schools of Greece and Rome, which had educated the master spirits of the world; it was natural for him to turn, with delight, from the scene, in which he was engaged, to those specious forms of government, the splendid effects of which were obvious, while the defects were withdrawn, in a great measure, by the deception of distance from the sight. He preferred a republic, (and who can blame him?) to that unascertained and unprotected constitution, which on every quarter was open to successful invasion, which gave the promise of liberty only, as it were, to excite the pain of disappointment, and which told men that they had a right to be free in the very instant in which it abandoned them to oppression.

'In the idea of Milton, liberty was associated with the perfection of his species; and he pursued the great object with the enthusiasm of benevolence, and with the consciousness of obedience to a high and imperious duty. Against tyranny, or the abuse of power, wherever it occurred and by whatever party it was attempted, in the church or the state, by the prelate or the presbyter, he felt himself summoned to contend. From his continuance in office under the usurpation of Cromwell he has been arraigned of inconsistency, and a dereliction of principle. But, not to repeat what has already been advanced upon the subject, his office did not, in any way, blend him with the usurpation; he had no connection with the confidence or the counsels of the Protector; and he conceived, with the most perfect truth, that he was the servant of his country when he acted as the organ of her intercourse with foreign states. We have seen his magnanimous Address to the Usurper; and from some of his private letters we may collect his acute feelings of mortification and disappointment in consequence of the afflicted state of the commonwealth, and the abandonment of that cause which was always the most near to his heart.'

Dr. Symmons's extracts from the "Second Defence of the People of England," including the above-mentioned 'Address to the Usurper,' speak very strongly to this point. The passage in question has generally been considered as forming a panegyric on Cromwell: but in this very foundation of the charge against Milton, the refutation of that charge is perhaps to be obtained. It commences, indeed, with an apparent encomium on the services and abilities of the Protector, and more especially on his rejection of the title of King: but in what follows, in the manly tone of advice and exhortation in which Cromwell is addressed, in the energetic display of those acts against which the writer so strenuously cautions the man who then stood at the helm of the state, so far is sycophancy from being dicoverable, that *suspicion* is rather betrayed lest Cromwell should adopt the line of conduct which is here so pathetically deprecated. Is not this view of the matter justified by the subsequent paragraphs in this address; which, for the sake of brevity, we quote only in Dr. Symmons's translation?

"Proceed then, O Cromwell! and exhibit, under every circumstance, the same loftiness of mind; for it becomes you and is consistent with your greatness. The redeemer, as you are, of your country, the author, the guardian, the preserver of her liberty, you can assume no additional character more important or more august: since not only the actions of our kings, but the fabled exploits of our heroes are overcome by your achievements. Reflect, then, frequently, (how dear alike the trust, and the parent from whom you have received it!) that to your hands your country has commended and confided her freedom; that, what she lately expected from her choicest representatives, she now hopes only from you. O reverence this high confidence, this hope of your country relying exclusively upon yourself: reverence the countenances and the wounds of those brave men, who have so nobly struggled for liberty under your auspices, as well as the manes of those who have fallen in the conflict: reverence, also, the opinion and the discourse of foreign communities; their lofty anticipation with respect to our freedom so valiantly obtained—to our republic so gloriously established, of which the speedy extinction would involve us in the deepest and the most unexampled infamy: reverence, finally, yourself! and suffer not that liberty, for the attainment of which you have encountered so many perils and have endured so many hardships, to sustain any violation from your own hands, or any from those of others. Without our freedom, in fact, you cannot yourself be free; for it is justly ordained by nature that he, who invades the liberty of others, shall, in the very outset lose his own, and be the first to feel that servitude which he has induced. But if the very patron, the tutelary Deity, as it were, of freedom;—if the man, the most eminent for justice, and sanctity, and general excellence should assail that liberty which he has asserted, the issue must necessarily be pernicious, if not fatal, not only to the aggressor, but to the entire system and interests of piety herself; honour and virtue would, indeed, appear to be empty names; the credit and character of religion would decline and perish under a wound more deep than any, which, since the first transgression, had been inflicted on the race of man.

"You have engaged in a most arduous undertaking, which will search you to the quick; which will scrutinize you through and through; which will bring to the severest test your spirit, your energy, your stability; which will ascertain whether you are really actuated by that living piety, and honour, and equity, and moderation

tion which seem, with the favour of God, to have raised you to your present high dignity To rule with your counsels three mighty realms; in the place of their erroneous institutions to substitute a sounder system of doctrine and of discipline; to pervade their remotest provinces with unremitting attention, and anxiety, vigilance and foresight; to decline no labours, to yield to no blandishments of pleasure; to spurn the pageantries of wealth and of power—these are difficulties in comparison with which those of war are the mere levities of play: these will sift and winnow you; these demand a man sustained by the divine assistance, tutored and instructed almost by a personal communication with his God. These and more than these you often, as I doubt not, revolve and make the subjects of your deepest meditation; greatly solicitous how, most happily, they may be achieved, and your country's freedom be strengthened and secured: and these objects you cannot, in my judgment, otherwise effect than by admitting, as you do, to an intimate share of your counsels those men who have already participated your toils and your dangers;—men of the utmost moderation, integrity, and valour; not rendered savage or austere by the sight of so much bloodshed and of so many forms of death; but inclined to justice, to the reverence of the Deity, to a sympathy with human suffering, and animated for the preservation of liberty with a zeal strengthened by the hazards which, for its sake, they have encountered; men not raked together from the dregs of our own or of a foreign populace—not a band of mercenary adventurers, but men chiefly of superior condition; in extraction, noble or reputable; with respect to property, considerable or competent, or, in some instances, deriving a stronger claim to our regard, even from their poverty itself; men, not convened by the lust of plunder, but, in times of extreme difficulty, amid circumstances generally doubtful and often almost desperate, excited to vindicate their country from oppression; and prompt, not only in the safety of the senate-house to wage the war of words, but to join battle with the enemy on the field. If we will then renounce the idleness of never-ending and fallacious expectation, I see not in whom, if not in these, and in such as these, we can place reliance or trust. Of their FIDELITY we have the surest and most indisputable proof in the readiness which they have discovered even to die, if it had been their lot, in the cause of their country; of their PIETY, in the devotion with which, having repeatedly and successfully implored the protection of Heaven, they uniformly ascribed the glory to Him from whom they had solicited the victory; of their JUSTICE, in their not exempting even their king from trial or from execution; of their MODERATION, in our own experience and in the certainty, that if their violence should disturb the peace, which they have established, they would themselves be the first to feel the resulting mischiefs, themselves would receive the first wounds in their own bodies, while they were again doomed to struggle for all their fortunes and honours now happily secured; of their FORTITUDE, lastly, in that none ever recovered their liberty with more bravery or effect, to give us the assurance that none will ever watch over it with more solicitous attention and care."

The conclusion is also strikingly applicable to Milton's o[illegible] conduct in those times:

"For myself, whatever may be the final result, such efforts as [illegible] my own judgment, were the most likely to be beneficial to the co[illegible]monwealth, I have made without reluctance, though not, as I tru[illegible] without effect: I have wielded my weapons for liberty not only [illegible] our domestic scene, but on a far more extensive theatre; that [illegible] justice and the principle of our extraordinary actions, explained a[illegible] vindicated both at home and abroad, and rooted in the general a[illegible]probation of the good, might be unquestionably established, as w[illegible] for the honour of my compatriots as for precedents to posterity. That the conclusion prove not unworthy of such a commencement, be it my countrymen's to provide:—it has been mine to deliver [illegible] testimony. I had almost said to erect a monument which will not soon decay, to deeds of greatness and of glory almost transcending human panegyric; and if I have accomplished nothing further, *I have assuredly discharged the whole of my engagement.* As the bard, however, who is denominated Epic, if he confine his work a little within certain canons of composition, proposes to himself, for a subject of poetical embellishment, not the whole life of his hero but some single action; such as the wrath of Achilles, the return of Ulysses, or the arrival in Italy of Æneas; and takes no notice of the rest of his conduct; so will it suffice, either to form my vindication or to satisfy my duty, that I have recorded, in heroic narrative, one only of my fellow-citizen's achievements. The rest I omit; for who can declare all the actions of an entire people? If, after such valiant exploits, you fall into gross delinquency; and perpetrate any thing unworthy of yourselves, posterity will not fail to discuss and to pronounce sentence on the disgraceful deed. The foundation, they will allow, indeed, to have been firmly laid, and the first (nay more than the first) parts of the superstructure to have been erected with success; but with anguish they will regret that there were none found to carry it forward to completion; that such an enterprize and such virtues were not crowned by perseverance; that a rich harvest of glory and abundant materials for heroic achievement were prepared; but that men were wanting to the illustrious opportunity – while there wanted not a man to instruct, to urge, to stimulate to action,—a man who could call fame as well upon the acts as the actors, and could spread their celebrity and their names over lands and seas to the admiration of all future ages."

Dr. Symmons closes with a summary of Milton's character, which is indeed finely drawn, but (we think) too highly wrought and too strongly coloured. A believer in the story of the *Admirable Chrichton* could not more brilliantly decorate his hero.

This Life was written for the purpose of being affixed to a handsome edition of Milton's Prose works, in seven volumes 8vo.; and the whole of his labours clearly proves that Dr.

Symmons's zeal for Milton has induced him not merely to vindicate the poet from his principal enemies, Dr. Johnson and Mr. Thomas Warton, but to give them in return a Rowland for their Oliver.

Art. XII. *An Essay on Respiration.* Part First and Second. By John Bostock, M.D. 8vo. pp. 275. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

No part of Physiology has undergone a more complete revolution within these few years, than the doctrines which relate to Respiration. From the discoveries of chemistry, which have thrown so much lustre on the Philosophy of the present day, nearly all the knowlege which we possess concerning this function is derived; and instead of the vague and limited uses formerly ascribed to it, we now find that through its means some of the most important changes are effected in the animal œconomy, and that it is intimately connected with several processes of the first consequence to health and life. We are happy, therefore, to notice, in the present work, a general and very correct and perspicous view of the present state of our knowlege on this subject. We regard the detailed examination of one particular function as the most likely mode of elucidating it; and while we give the author credit for the industry and judgment which he has exercised in this essay, we would express our hopes that he will carry on the plan which he has proposed to himself, of extending his views to the Pathology of respiration, to the different affections in the various natural situations in which the body is placed, and to the connection which exists between this and other functions. The field is ample and interesting, and we have no doubt of Dr. Bostock's abilities for cultivating it.

An account of the process of Respiration occupies the first part of this volume, and it is preceded by a description of the human organs destined for this purpose, with their mechanism. The author then extends his inquiry to a critical examination of the different accounts which have been given by various Physiologists of the bulk of a single inspiration, and the capacity of the thorax in its different states of distension. He considers the experiments of Drs. Goodwyn and Menzies as the most successful on these points; and he agrees with the latter in thinking that about 40 cubic inches are discharged at an *ordinary*, and with the former, that about 109 cubic inches are left in the lungs after a *complete* expiration. Dr. Menzies supposes that about 70 cubic inches can be discharged from the lungs after an ordinary expiration; and therefore by adding

109 to 70, he concludes that 179 cubic inches are the capacity of the lungs after an ordinary expiration, and that 179 added to 40 (the bulk of an ordinary expiration,) give 219 as the capacity of the lungs after an ordinary inspiration. Dr. Bostock is of opinion that nearly double the quantity which Dr. Menzies supposes, or about 121 instead of 70 cubic inches, can be discharged by a powerful effort, after an ordinary expiration; and that therefore 280 cubic inches form the capacity of the lungs in their natural state of inspiration. From these data, he estimates 'that by each ordinary expiration $\frac{1}{7}$ part of the whole contents of the lungs is discharged, and that by the most violent expiration, somewhat more than ^{4} of the air contained in them is evacuated. Supposing that each respiration occupies about 3 seconds, a bulk of air nearly equal to three times the whole contents of the lungs will be expelled in a minute, or about 4114 times their bulk in 24 hours. The quantity of air respired, during the diurnal period, will be 1,152,000 cubic inches, or 666⅔ cubic feet.'

With regard to the cause of the first inspiration, the author supposes, with considerable appearance of truth, that when the position of the animal is changed (as it must be) after birth, a considerable pressure is taken off from the thorax and abdomen, the elasticity of the cartilages raises the ribs, and the abdominal viscera descend; by all which means, the capacity of the lungs is enlarged; and the air rushes in spontaneously to supply the void. He thinks that the alternation of inspiration and expiration depends on a certain power which the blood acquires, when it has remained some time in the pulmonary vessels without the access of fresh air, of stimulating the diaphragm, and thus making room, by its contraction, for the external air to rush in; while, on the other hand, when the blood has undergone the necessary change, and the state which caused the contraction of the diaphragm no longer exists, this muscle relaxes, and expiration ensues. This opinion appears to us to be rather hypothetical; and we do not perceive that much is gained by laying aside, in reasoning on this subject, the consideration that respiration is a function under the influence of the will. It is true that, in ordinary circumstances, we are insensible to any uneasy sensation in the means of continuing respiration, and therefore are not intitled to infer that the cause of the alternation of respiration is to avoid such unpleasant feeling: but at the same time it may be remarked, that the limits of ordinary respiration are closely contiguous to those of uneasy sensation; and that from the number of instances of associated motions, which take place before consciousness exists, we cannot altogether set aside the idea that nature has wisely guarded us against the interruptions of a function necessary to existence, by making the personal feelings of the individual interested in its continuance.

Part II. of this essay treats of the direct effects of respiration; which the author divides into the mechanical effects caused by the dilatation and contraction of the thorax, the change produced on the inspired air, and the alteration effected in the blood itself in its passage through the lungs. With regard to the first point, he is of opinion that, in the usual act of respiration, the blood is transmitted through the lungs with nearly equal facility; and that it is only in extreme cases that the retardation, imagined by many authors to exist, can be supposed to take place. He also thinks that the other effects of respiration on the vascular and lymphatic system have been much over-rated.—The two remaining subjects of discussion relate to the changes which are effected on air that has been inspired, and on the blood which has passed through the lungs. Dr. B.'s summary of the state of our knowlege on the first particular we shall give in his own words:

'1. A quantity of oxygene is consumed in respiration; in ordinary circumstances atmospheric air, which has been once respired, loses nearly ·04 of its bulk of oxygene; in 24 hours a man consumes a quantity which will weigh about 2lbs. 8oz.; somewhat more than 26 cubic feet.

'2. A quantity of carbonic acid is generated by respiration; its volume is less than that of the oxygene absorbed, nearly in the proportion of 37 to 45; the weight of carbonic acid formed in 24 hours is about 3lb.; a volume of about 22 cubic feet.

'3. The whole volume of the air is diminished by respiration; the degree of diminution is not very accurately ascertained, but it may be estimated at about $\frac{1}{50}$ of its bulk.

'4. A quantity of aqueous vapour, the amount of which is still undetermined, is emitted from the lungs.

'5. It is probable that a small portion of azote is absorbed, upon an average about $\frac{1}{100}$ part of the air respired, making in 24 hours about 4½oz. or 4 cubic feet.

'6. From the ascertained proportion in which the oxygene and pure charcoal exist in carbonic acid, it appears that a greater quantity of oxygene is consumed, than is necessary for the formation of the carbonic acid which is produced.'

It is necessarily very difficult to discover the changes which the blood undergoes in its passage through the lungs.—Dr. B. has, however, given a comprehensive view of what has been ascertained or rendered probable on this subject; and of the general inferences we shall make an abstract.

The blood, in its passage through the lungs, emits carbonic acid gas and absorbs oxygen, and is thus converted from a dull to the public welfare, and as calculated to call forth the united talents, as well as the utmost resources of the empire: in which endeavour he persisted till within a few months of his death. I am aware of the delicacy of such a statement, but I am bold in the certainty of its truth. My profound respect for those by whom such averment, if false, might be contradicted, would not suffer me to make it, were it not called for to do justice to that great and virtuous statesman whose unrivalled qualities, both in private and in public life, will ever be in my recollection

"Dum memor ipse mei, dum spiritus hos regit artus."

This statement, we ſuspect, is much more than the Right Hon. apologist can prove. High as are the channels of information which are accessible to Mr. Rose, the only competent and satisfactory one relating to the present delicate topic is beyond even his reach. The carriage of Lord Eldon was not likely to bear to the Queen's house the advocate for Mr. Fox's admission into office. Is not the counter report, which whispers that the Ex-minister listened to the flattering insinuations of a Northern Viscount that his own mighty arms were perfectly equal to the management of the reins of empire, fully as probable as that which is here retailed? Mr. Rose asserts that 'Mr. Pitt was most anxiously desirous,' that he 'pressed Mr. Fox's *admission* into office with the greatest earnestness:'—but what was the fact? One short audience disposed of the illustrious Fox;—and during this memorable interview, how many minutes of it were employed in representing his claims? How many words did Mr. Pitt employ on a point about which he was so *anxiously desirous*, and which he *pressed* with such *earnestness*? That Mr. Pitt proposed the admission of Mr. Fox into the new cabinet we do not deny, but that he *anxiously desired it*, that he *earnestly pressed* it, we cannot admit, positively as it is asserted by the Right Hon. George Rose. We shall next expect to be told that he was seconded in the recommendation by his friends Lords Melville and Eldon.—That the door of the cabinet was thrown wide open to Lord Grenville, we allow: but he declined the invitation; and the choice which he made between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox, at a momentous crisis, ought never to be forgotten by his country, particularly by those who regarded the latter as better qualified than any other man to preside over the foreign interests of the British empire.

The main body of this tract, however, is not less creditable to the author, than to the official co-adjutor and the grateful friend. It is composed in the best style of narrative, and is distinguished by simplicity, perspicuity, and method. Though the name is scarcely mentioned, the object is never out of sight, and is completely attained: the impression made on the mind is strong; we are conscious of the *præsens Divus*: we feel his power, and we are constrained to do him homage. It is an offering due to the late minister, and is a tribute from friendship which honors the giver and the receiver. We had heard much of the eminence of Mr. Rose as a man of business, and as a judicious director of influence: but, till the first appearance of this publication, we were ignorant of his familiarities with the Muse of Latium; and it was unknown to us that the late indefatigable Secretary of the Treasury was master of the graces of style, and could boast of the accomplishments of the scholar.

Art. XIV. *A Short View of the Political State of Great Britain and Ireland, at the Opening of the New Parliament*; with some Remarks on the recent fatal Mortality among Men of splendid Talents, and especially on the irreparable Loss which the Country has sustained in the Death of her ablest Champion, the late lamented Member for Westminster: in an Address to the People of England. By an Independent Freeholder. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Ridgway. 1807.

Although the literary claims of this pamphlet are not imposing, and a few prejudices and false notions appear to be afloat in the mind of the writer, which prevent him from seeing some objects in a proper light, we cannot withhold our esteem from the upright intentions, the dispassionate spirit, and the many just sentiments, which his pages display. We shall extend our notice of it, however, in order to animadvert on the popular error, that the stock held by foreigners in our funds ought not to be exempted from taxation, which is mixed with the sensible and liberal views of this writer. We cannot, indeed, enter fully into the subject, since our limits allow not room for the demonstration which would produce irresistible conviction: but we shall submit to the candid reader those presumptions which lie on the superficies of things, and that belong to a genus in the class of proofs which, being readily seized by minds of discernment and penetration, enable men to judge rightly of subjects of which they have very slight knowlege, and often *more* rightly than those who are deeply conversant with them, but who want the same *tact*.

It certainly was not the interest of ministers to allow of this exemption without good cause; and yet three successive financiers, who have each improved on the other in rendering the tax productive, have severally admitted it. We do not recollect that it has been ever urged by the present opposition: but if it has, the topic has not been and probably never will be again introduced by them. We have, then, the consent of all statesmen, in and out of place, to sanction the exemption. It is also obvious that the bias of ministers must be against it. A minister is as fully aware as any man how much less productive it renders the tax; he is sensible that, in appearance, it favours the foreigner and increases the pressure on the British subject; and its unpopularity he must fully anticipate. What powerful interest does he flatter or gratify by it? What motive can he have for such a regulation, but a conviction of its policy and expediency, in addition to a sense of its justice? If in acting thus the late and present ministers have sinned, they have certainly not willfully transgressed. Their offence must have been a mere error in judgment, which they must have every disposition to renounce on being satisfied of its fallacy: but it is an error into which Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington and Lord Henry Petty have successively fallen, and which was never imputed to them as such (as far as we recollect) by those who wanted neither ability to discover nor inclination to display their faults. Of what value must be this unanimity among persons who have so many motives to disagree, who see things through such different mediums, and whom political animosity often leads to affect differences when in fact they are of the same mind;—of what value, we say, must consent be regarded, among parties thus circumstanced, on a point of importance, and when popularity is against the unanimity? With all persons who have not given these matters their own attention and consideration, consent of this sort ought to be decisive.—We do not rest the matter on presumption, however, because it does not admit of being fully established by investigation, but we abstain from such investigation because our pages will not admit of it, and because many persons are incapable of following up such an inquiry. A defence of the exemption would form an appropriate chapter under the head of political œconomy. If, among those who doubt, there be any one who is imbued with this science, we invite him to reflect on the natural effects of capital, and on its effects among a people such as we are; and how imperiously the importance of these effects calls on public men to favour its flow into the country. Let him recollect that the investment of so much foreign capital in our funds permits an equal portion of our home-capital to be employed in public improvements and mercantile speculations; let him calculate the vast advantages which we thus make of this investment; let him consider how beneficial it would be to increase this influx, and how pernicious to diminish it; and let him contemplate the delicate nature of that confidence, which attracts to this country the money of strangers,—how easily it is paralyzed,—and with what difficulty, when it once departs, it is again established. This foreign deposit is so much money employed in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce; since, if it be withdrawn, the same sum must be diverted from those vivifying channels. We make, then, a handsome profit of this money, which is intrusted to our custody by our neighbours, who rely on our good faith and our honor; and let us be content with our fair and honest gains.

The sentiments in this pamphlet are, in general, as liberal as they are patriotic; and it was from want of attention, we are persuaded, that this writer adopted the erroneous notion which we have been deprecating.—He is a very ardent admirer of the late Mr. Fox; and if he be not just to that statesman's eminent rival, he shews laudable moderation and temper in the language in which he speaks of both:

> 'We have to deplore the loss of TWO MEN, whose abilities as statesmen are perhaps unrivalled in the annals of mankind. It were an idle waste of words to endeavour to prove, what the whole world acknowledges, that their talents were superior to all panegyric! The violence of party-spirit in regard to these eminent persons hath already nearly evaporated; the clouds of prejudice are already clearing away; the *obstinacy* of the *one* is no longer dignified by the name of PATRIOTISM, nor is the *perseverance* of the *other* any longer stigmatized under the appellation of DISAFFECTION. The merits and the errors of each are already beginning to find their level; and posterity will do justice to both.
>
> 'Entirely opposite in their characters, habits, dispositions, and manners, in one respect only they assimilated—each pursued the *same end*, though by different means; each ardently laboured to promote, what he conceived to be the welfare of his country. The *groundless assertions* of the *one*, and the PROPHETIC WARNINGS of the *other*, are now examined by the eye of impartiality—and the natural good sense of the English nation begins at length to perceive, how quickly the most refined subtilties of SOPHISTRY vanished at the approach of TRUTH; and in the bitterness of disappointed ambition to reflect upon the vanity of artificial eloquence, when opposed to the ROUGH AND ARTLESS MAJESTY OF TRUE WISDOM!'

We do not equally praise a composition which this author highly applauds, viz. Mr. Godwin's sketch of the British Demosthenes, which is copied into this tract. Mr. Godwin has undeniably the merit of having happily seized and strongly painted many of the characteristic features of his original; the charms of his private character, his services to liberty, and the attributes of his eloquence, are well conceived by the artist: but the portrait is incomplete, and some of the more striking traits are not even attempted. In vain we seek for the just delineation of his exquisite taste; of his style so pure, [illegible] simple, so fascinating; of the vast and rich furniture of his mind; of that superior discernment in the foreign interests [illegible] his country, which dictated salutary and which foretold the mischiefs of unwise councils; of that high estimation in which he was held by enlightened foreigners; and of the vast number of respectable persons whose attachment to him nothing could shake. Why give to another physiognomy a[illegible] part of the canvas appropriated to *his* portrait; why call [illegible] past times; why the parallelism which is on so many accounts to be condemned; sitting down to such a subject, how ca[illegible] the pencil to sketch a groupe?

We suspect that the artist is rather too complimentary to the national character, when, after having traced the excellencies of Mr. Fox, he says, 'he was all over English.' The fair abstract of the English character probably falls short of that of the personage whom Mr. Godwin undertakes to pourtray. In the former, with honor, courage, openness, good sense, kindness, and devotion to liberty, an inordinate nationality is blended, which leads us to hold the rest of the world in too low estimation, to overlook the good qualities of others, and to be blind to our own imperfections. We should indeed be libellers of Mr. Fox if we denied him nationality, since there was every thing in his nature, in his situation, and in his pursuits, that could render the feeling intense: but in him it was more than the mere feeling, it was the feeling purified and elevated, invigorated by study and guided by reflection. His pursuits led to intercourse with foreigners; he sought it and was capable of maintaining it: for on the acquirement of accomplishments in this department, he had employed the whole force of his great talents. His rare excellencies of this kind attracted only the curious, who had a similar turn: but it is on this ground that his loss must at this crisis be regarded as most afflicting. Let us, however, restrain the pen.—Now that Mr. Fox is no longer among us, we may indeed more freely speak our sentiments of him than ever we did while he was living, because we can declare them without being suspected of those personal motives and that party spirit which the Monthly Review has ever disdained: but our gratitude, our affection, if it be permitted us to use the phrase, must not carry us on to attempt what is beyond our strength and beyond our means. To the arduous and meritorious task, he only is equal, who lived the intimate of the illustrious departed, who was blessed with a portion of the same genius, and who himself witnessed all his public displays; a sketch from such a hand, if such a hand there be, would be crowned with the warmest acknowlegements of Britons. That the fame of Charles James Fox is not a national object, no man will now be hardy enough to question: but had it required evidence, it would have been furnished by the universal feeling which every where manifested itself, in a distinguished assembly, on occasion of a late most extraordinary attempt to taunt and insult his mighty shade.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1807.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 15. *Calista:* or a Picture of Modern Life. A Poem in three Parts. By Luke Booker, LL. D. 4to. 2s. 6d. stitched. Button.

WHEN the Muse is employed in the cause of virtue, she demands to be received with peculiar respect; especially when she courageously raises her voice in opposing vices and immoralities that are sanctioned by Fashion and the example of the great. We wish, as far as our influence extends, to encourage those writers who, like Dr. Booker, endeavour not so much by satire as by serious expostulation, to resist the torrent of iniquity which is deluging the land; and especially to hold up to the Fair Sex the tremendous consequences which attend their departure from the paths of rectitude. Yet it is almoſt hopeleſs to preach to a woman who is hurried round in the vortex of a pleasurable life; for alas, she is not only *dead while she liveth* (as the apostle says) to all the important ends of existence, but she is commonly dead also to shame and reproof. If, however, Dr. B.'s *Calista* should have no effect in reclaiming our fashionable dames, the picture may be of use as a caution to others, and may serve to shew the kind of education which females should receive in order to fit them for the characters of wives and mothers. In this poem, the author describes the virtuous rapture which a mother derives from nursing her own infants, and contrasts this picture with that of a dissipated female, who abandons her children during infancy, and plunges into scenes of fashionable dissipation. The effects of gaming on the moral principle, and on the female character in particular, are next exhibited. Calista loses her honour; advances in delinquency, and elopes with her seducer; they are overtaken by a storm and shipwrecked on a rock; here the husband, who was returning from abroad, accidentally comes to their succour; Calista, on seeing him, plunges into the sea and is drowned; and the husband, in a subsequent encounter, (a conclusion which we do not approve,) falls by the sword of the seducer. On this representation, the Senate is addressed respecting the crime of Adultery, which Dr. B. thinks should be restrained, if all other means fail, by coercion; and he recommends the trial of close solitary confinement for *both* the criminals. We shall offer no remark on his new mode of repressing this growing vice, but we suggest it as our opinion that we should rather consult its prevention by the education and formation of moral habits in our females, than its punishment. If they are encouraged to tread in the paths of vice, it is no wonder that they fall.

Dr. B.'s stanzas are flowing and impressive: but negligencies occasionally present themselves. 'Wide-widowing war' is a heavy alliteration. 'To where' is not grammar, as also may be said of the line

'Then many a bitter pang her heart was made endure.'

We have no such verb as *to statue*, yet, for the grandeur of the effect, we must tolerate 'Statued with horror,' applied to the husband on discovering Calista with her seducer: but Dr. B. might have found a more pleasing name for the adulterer than *Mœchus*, and have helped out his line with something better than 'Mœchus reply made none.'

In the last stanza but one, *Sinai* is made three into syllables,

'In thunders from Judean Sinai.'

These spots, however, will be lost in the general effect. We offer to the reader the following stanzas as a specimen. Having represented the strong affection of savages and even brutes towards their young, the poet proceeds:

'What magic, then, congeals the cordial tide?—
To *more* than brute, can FASHION's idle lure
Transform CALISTA? draw her feet aside
From wedlock's holy path and pleasure pure?
Pleasures, for which the gentlest dames endure
Pangs, that man's hardier nature would appal!
Yet, in their infant's smile, feel recompence for all.

'Can DISSIPATION's midnight orgies please,
While in her feverish breast she painful bears
The copious streams which should the thirst appease
Of her untended infant, drown'd in tears?—
But its lamenting sobs she never hears!
Seductive Flattery's tale, and Music's strain,
Warbled by eunuch-tongues, the mother's soul enchain.

'When clos'd the operatic scene, O say,
Along the flambeau'd streets do her swift wheels
Homeward roll on?—Does *then* affection sway
Her milk swol'n bosom?—Eagerness reveals
The darling wishes *that* rack'd bosom feels;
Yet not the recent offsprings of her womb,
Long-absent, now to meet,—but Chance's secret doom.

'Lo! pack'd with harpies, round the gaming board
She sits, the victim of their specious wiles;
Her purse with Fortune's shining bounty stor'd;—
Ruin, close hov'ring o'er her, grimly smiles,
And soon of wealth,—perverted wealth, beguiles
The unwary wife. Ah, prostituted name!
Her HONOUR next is pledg'd—and ransom'd by her SHAME!

'Reproaching morn now blushes in the skies,
And dims the wasted taper's needless ray;
When, guilty, to domestic scenes she hies
And breathes deep curses on the coming day,—
ANGUISH her sole companion by the way.
Arriv'd—does she her famish'd young-one seek?
No: far from its loud plaint she pillows her pale cheek.

'But Sleep his balm oblivious there denies.
Full in her view stalk RUIN's ghastly train;
Before her CONSCIENCE, hideous spectres rise,—
Point to her life, and shew its every stain;
Her husband wrong'd—her reputation slain,—
Her children lost, abandon'd by her care:—
These wring her throbbing heart and gender wild despair.'

Dr. B. declares that he will regard his Muse as amply repaid 'if she one votary saves.'

Art. 16. *Poetical Amusement on the Journey of Life; consisting of various Pieces in Verse: serious, theatric, epigrammatic, and miscellaneous.* By William Meyler. 8vo. pp. 220. 6s. Boards. Bath, printed by the Author; and sold by Robinson, &c. London. 1806.

We have derived little *amusement* from the first section of these fugitive compositions. A paraphrase of St. Paul's sublime description of charity is the first in the collection; and what rhyming imitation can ever equal the original prose? Mr. Meyler's expansion is cold and lifeless.—The 'Sorrows of a favourite Spaniel' are vented with disgusting coarseness: but the 'Monody on the death of Garrick' possesses some poetical merit, and conveys us, by an easy and natural transition, to the second part, in which the author appears to much greater advantage. In most of his prologues, epilogues, and occasional addresses, which are varied with due discrimination, we discern much ease, and are now and then treated with a neat or witty allusion. We are inclined to particularize the Epilogues delivered by Mr. Jackson, Mr. Brunton, and Mr. Blisset, the apological address spoken by Mrs. Didier, and that which is intitled 'Old Crop.'

The epigrammatic specimens are generally well turned: as for example:

'*The Fair Equivoque.*

'As blooming Harriet moved along,
The fairest of the beauteous throng,
The beaux gazed on with admiration,
Avow'd by many an exclamation—
What form! what *naiveté!* what grace!
What roses deck that Grecian face!
"Nay," Dashwood cries, "that bloom's not Harriet's,
'Twas bought at Reynold's, Moore's, or Marriott's;
And though you vow her face untainted,
I swear, *by God*, your beauty's painted."
A wager instantly was laid,
And Ranger sought the lovely maid;

The pending bet he soon reveal'd,
Nor e'en the impious oath conceal'd.
Confused—her cheek bore witness true,
By turns the roses came and flew.
"Your bet," she said, "is rudely odd—
But I *am* painted, Sir—*by God.*"

'*The Retort Simple.*

'Cries a buck of a Parson, impatient and hot,
"Into this ragged surplice the Devil has got."
The Clerk, who endeavour'd t' adjust, coax, and pin it,
Cried, *Why, Zur, as you say, the Devil is in it.*"

'*To Sleep, imitated from the Latin* *.

'Emblem of death! come soothing, balmy sleep,
Friend of my pillow! o'er my eyelids creep;
Soft let me slumber, gently breathing, sigh,
Live without life, and without dying die!'

Mr. Meyler apologizes for blending with the *Miscellaneous* effusions several pieces which should have been placed under their proper heads. The Sonnet at page 161, and 'Billy Burrows,' for instance, belong, of right, to the first division; and they are sufficient to convince us that the author, with a little pains, might succeed even in the graver walks of poetry; for both are characterized by tenderness of sentiment and simplicity of diction. The performance, indeed, on the whole, makes such a pleasing *olla podrida*, that it is with much reluctance we notice such imperfect rhymes as *seat* and *gate*, *frame* and *gleam*, *came* and *beam*, *taste* and *feast*, *wake* and *bespeak*, *seen* and *lane*, &c. We cannot, also, recognize the *meritorious worth* of the following lines:

'Celestial charity, generous and kind.'
'Long carried on in but one trader's name.'
'For who so fit as *thee* to, &c.'
'With such a charge for worlds I had not *fell*.'

In works of length and transcendant merit, we are enjoined by high authority to overlook the *paucæ maculæ*: but short compositions, not hastily published, have no claims to similar indulgence. Several of the present juvenile productions, though honoured with myrtle wreaths at Bath-Easton villa, will bear revision; and some might have remained in the author's repositories, without subtracting from the value of the collection: but from the charge of *high crimes and literary misdemeanours*, we willingly absolve Mr. Meyler, and he is hereby absolved accordingly.

Art 17. *Corruption*, a Satire, with Notes. By Thomas Clio Rickman, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Author, Upper Mary-le-bone Street.

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* *Somne levis! quanquam certissima mortis imago,*
Consortem cupio te tamen esse tori.
Alma quies! optata veni: nam sic sine vitâ
Vivere quam suave est, sic sine morte mori!

Whether it be a bad or a good symptom, we leave to the decision of our readers, but the fact is that the lynx-eyed observer of the defects of governments and of the faults of men in power is become a character which very few are disposed to caress. The orthodox political faith is that Ministers must be right, that their adherents and satellites cannot be very wrong, and that to expose them to the shafts of satire is a measure truly jacobinical. An acceptable satirist must now choose his game with discretion; he may hold up to derision a fine lady or a Bond-street lounger, if he will be content with "breaking such butterflies upon the wheel:" but he must not venture to charge Corruption on our rulers, nor hint at the existence of "rottenness in the state." Mr. Rickman, therefore, is not a fashionable censor; for he takes liberties with the Great, and tries to persuade us, (though by-the-bye no man who sees his own interest will believe it,) that modern statesmen and senators are capable of the vile obliquity of sacrificing the public good for their own private aggrandizement. Can he think that such heresy as his will be tolerated?

'England! at that dear name my heart's blood warms,
Parent of Arts, and nursery of Arms,
Weeping on recollection tears of blood,
I once remember thee—how fair! how good!
Of every son of liberty the pride,
The fear and envy of the world beside:
But now, alas! how weak—how fall'n—how chang'd—
Thy properties unsafe, thy laws estrang'd!
I view thee, grasping for a moment's breath,
Convuls'd, and struggling in the pangs of death;
Whilst each state quack, unskill'd to heal or cure,
Skins o'er thy wounds to make thy death more sure.

'It is not strange? no, 'tis a thing of course,
A deadly stream from foul *Corruption*'s source;
Which breaking down all bounds in rapid sway,
Devouring rolls, and sweeps the land away:
Vain are the efforts of the patriot few,
With bribes unstain'd, and still to honour true;
In vain the sons of heaven-born freedom strive
To keep expiring liberty alive.' &c. &c.

Granting, however, that Corruption exists to the full extent of the Satirist's ideas, we do not think that he has exposed it with that energy and poetic vigor which we are justified in expecting in poems of this character. He applies the rod with a feeble arm; and many of his couplets are so tame and vapid, that they are more like sing-song than satire: E. G.

'To conjure in his brain the silly whim
Of changefulness of character in him.'

'On principles above them all! plain, clear
Undeviating—strait from year to year.'

> 'Cunning and superficial, prating ever,
> But not discriminating, wise, or clever.'
>
> 'Shame on their meanness who such things can do
> But yet they are done, nay are common too.'
>
> 'Hold, POET, hold! thy rash intemperate satire
> And rather say, how shall we make things better.'

A poet who is solicitous to make things better should study make better verse, in order to give effect to his expostulations.

Art. 18. *Sacred Dramas:* intended chiefly for young Persons. To which is added an Elegy in Four Parts. By John Collett, Master of the Academy, Evesham, Worcestershire. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Longman and Co.

To the entertainment which the author received from a work of Mrs. H. More, bearing precisely the same title, and published by her in 1802. (see M. R. Vol. lxvii. p. 31.) we are indebted for this undertaking, in which Mr. Collett has endeavoured to increase the list of Sacred Dramas. The gentleman, however, docs not presume to contest the palm with the lady; on the contrary, he ingenuously acknowleges that his Dramas are inferior to those already before the public. In one respect, Mr. Collett has exceeded the plan of his fair predecessor, having introduced persons of his own creation to fill out the piece and to sustain the dialogue: but he pleads in excuse that he has 'more occasion for imaginary characters, on account of the paucity of real ones.' How far this apology is strictly admissible, in the present case, is a point on which we shall not venture to decide. Poetic liberties are not allowed to be taken with Sacred Scripture; and it will be said by critics that, if a narrative in the bible includes fewer characters than are necessary for the composition of a Drama, the attempt to dramatize it should be abandoned. We are not sure that to works of this kind, as designed for young persons, it might not be objected that they tend to give to Sacred History an air of fable. A palpable defect consists in the unaccommodating nature of the subject, which rejects embellishments strictly poetical; while the very language, which is appropriated to it, is that which we employ in our devotions.

Mr. Collett's first Drama is intitled *Ehud*, the subject being taken from Judges chap. iii.; the second, *Naboth*, from 1 Kings chap. xxi.; and the third, *Esther*, from the canonical book of Esther only. In the first he has displayed most genius, having indulged in the greatest liberties. He has formed the story of Ehud into an interesting piece; and, employing the usual appendages of Dramatic exhibitions, with the introduction even of a song and chorus in the last scene, he has studied what is called stage effect. The dialogue is tolerably managed: but occasionally the author is very negligent of rhythm, though he talks of his employment 'in measuring syllables;' and his language is sometimes extremely poor.

> 'And is the spirit of liberty destroyed?'
>
> 'And Israel has oftimes done the same.'
>
> 'That can with more propriety be raised.'

——————— 'he looks as he
Would utter, Haman, I care not for thee,
This, this I cannot bear.'
'Farewell, my Lord, we will erect the gallows.'

Though we have mentioned Mr. Collett's Song and Chorus in the finale of Ehud, we cannot compliment him on this lyric effusion: it is not like Eastern poetry, but has a bad resemblance to some of the poetry of the West, as the chorus of the warriors, &c. on bringing Ehud victorious into Eglon's Palace will evince:

> 'Raise your voices! sound your trumpets!
> Lo the conq'ring hero see!
> Crown him ruler! Crown him! Crown him
> He has sav'd from slavery.'

On the whole, however, the characters are well sustained.

The Elegy in *four* parts is in fact a series of Elegies on a brother and three sisters; the first of whom died March 3, 1791, and the last Oct. 7, 1802. In these mournful compositions, the author was no doubt inspired by affection, but not by the Muse; and they should not have travelled beyond his own family.

Art. 19. *Edgar, or Caledonian Feuds:* a Tragedy, performed with universal Applause at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By George Manners, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Tipper and Richards. 1806.

A rapid succession of incidents, producing the most unexpected and unexampled vicissitudes in the fortunes of the heroes of the piece, constitutes the chief interest of this performance.—In favour of the alleged inexperience of the writer, and the little time allowed him for preparing to meet the public, we are willing to overlook the harshness of his numbers, and the strange liberties which he has taken with the established laws of versification: but the total absence of that elevation of sentiment, and of that just and lively delineation of passion, in which consist the genuine graces of the Tragic Muse, forbids us to flatter Mr. Manners with the prospect of future celebrity beyond the walls of a theatre.

LAW.

Art. 20 *Practical Points,* or, Maxims in Conveyancing, drawn from the daily Experience of a very extensive Practice. By a late eminent Conveyancer. To which are added Critical Observations on the various and essential Parts of a Deed, by the late J. Ritson, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Clarke.

The editor of these tracts represents them as containing 'a brief but instructive selection of maxims, which the student may turn to great advantage by diligent reading, and to a much greater by interleaving his own copy with writing paper, and making it his common place book.' Entertaining such high notions of their importance, he ought, we think, to have bestowed a little attention on their revisal. The passages here strung together might surely have been copied accurately, references made to the works from which they were borrowed, and the cases specified which support the doctrine; it was not necessary that it should be made known to the public that the compilers were better lawyers than grammarians. The attempt of Mr. Ritson was well imagined, and, had it been better executed, it would have proved interesting.

Art. 21. *The Principles and Law of Tithing*, adapted to the Instruction and Convenience not only of Gentlemen of the Profession of the Law, but of all Persons interested in Tithes; illustrated by Reference to the most leading and recent Tithe Cases. By Francis Plowden, Esq., Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 627. 1l. 6s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin 1806.

Like the other writings of this learned author, the present volume discovers considerable reading: but, like them, also, it fails in its object, from the want of chasteness in the plan and of finishing in the execution. Politically and economically considered, the subject here treated is one of the nicest and most difficult on which talents and learning can be employed; and the legal view of it is not free from intricacies and embarrassments. Mr. Plowden shews, we conceive, a deficiency of judgment in uniting in one work investigations so widely different in their nature, though relating to the same subject. The politician and the economist feel little interest in the nature of the legal liability, or in a detail of the methods by which that liability is enforced; while the practising lawyer is not much disposed to speculate on the nature of the right, nor to examine its consequences in an economical point of view.

Art. 22. *Observations on the Rules of Descent*; and on the Point of Law, whether the Brothers of a Purchaser's Paternal Grandmother shall be preferred in the Descent, to the Brother of the paternal Great Grandmother of a Purchaser? in Defence of Mr. Justice Manwood's Position; and in Reply to the Advocates for the Doctrine of Mr. Justice Blackstone. Together with some Reflections on the Subject of our Law's Disallowance of Lineal Ascent. By W. H. Rowe, of Gray's Inn, Esq. Conveyancer. 8vo. pp. 117. 3s. 6d. Boards. Clarke and Sons.

If this question be not without practical interest, it principally claims the attention of the student as forming him to a habit of investigating abstruse legal points. Much of the learning that bears on the matters in discussion admits of more useful application.

Art. 23. *A Vindication of the Commentaries of Sir William Blackstone*, against the Strictures contained in Mr. Sedgwick's "Critical and Miscellaneous Remarks." By William Henry Rowe, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. 8vo. pp. 246. 7s. Boards. Clarke. 1806.

In our 37th Vol. N.S. p. 103, we announced Mr. Segdwick's Remarks on Blackstone in terms of qualified commendation. While some of them displayed considerable subtilty and acuteness, and several of them were well founded; others were dubious, and some were erroneous; some also were not unimportant, while others were extremely trivial. On the whole, they were too desultory, and too little connected, we think, to call for the notice that is here taken of them. We cannot discover that either legal or miscellaneous knowlege has gained much by these discussions: but Mr. Rowe has in some instances convicted Mr. Sedgwick of a very superficial examination of his authors.

Art. 24. *A Companion or Supplement to Digest of the Stamp Laws;* being an Analysis of so much of the late Acts, 44 Geo. 3. c. 98. and 45 Geo. 3. c. 28. as relate to the English Duties: shewing at one View, under distinct Heads, the various Stamp Duties now payable, contrasted with the old Duties, and pointing out the Difference or Increase between them, and the particular Laws, Regulations, or Restrictions applying thereto; as also, Instruments positively or constructively exempted. The whole illustrated with practical Annotations. By J. A. Heraud, Law Stationer. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Clarke and Son.

The character of Mr. Heraud's plodding labours is too well known to the public to require any description of them from us. He has here, with his usual care and correctness, analyzed the statutes mentioned in the title page; which we regard as the most oppressive, and the least politic, even in the fiscal division of our legislative enactments.

Art. 25. *The Practice of the Commissioners, Assessors, Surveyors, Collectors, and other Officers,* under the Authority of the several Acts relating to the Assessed Taxes; including a correct analytical Abridgement of the several Statutes passed in the 43d and 45th Years of the Reign of his present Majesty, relative to the Duties under the Management of the Commissioners for the Affairs of Taxes; with Tables of the Duties, adjudged Cases, explanatory Notes, and original Precedents. The Whole digested and arranged in the Methodical Order and Course in which the Acts are to be carried into Execution. By Thomas Walter Williams, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 112. 4s. 6d. Boards. Pheney.

The great convenience and utility of a work of this kind are now too generally felt, to require that they should be pointed out by criticism. Mr. Williams's labours, unfortunately for the public, will be acceptable to a much greater extent than it is in our power to recommend them.

NOVELS.

Art. 26. *Men and Women:* dedicated to Sir James Mackintosh. 3 Vols. 12mo. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

We learn that the author of this novel professes 'to have undertaken to represent *Men and Women,* inhabitants of the earth, and clogged with all its imperfections.' In the characters which he brings forwards, he has certainly exhibited a variety of imperfections; and he has endeavoured to shew the absurdity of some of them, by holding them up to the ridicule of the world. In satirizing a poet without learning, he is too severe, and particularly as he associates the name with that of a living character: however imprudent it may be in a mechanic to devote himself to poetry, yet surely the act is not likely to compel him to become the instrument of an abandoned attorney, and lead him

to

to attempt murder; here seems to be something like ill-nature,
has a forbidding aspect. Other parts of the work are repreh
on account of the indelicate ideas which they excite; and a
objection to this novel, though not of so serious a nature as th
mer, may affect its popularity, viz. the *learning* which it co
allusions to and quotations from Greek and Latin authors ge
frighten readers of publications of this nature, and often pre
continued perusal. Moreover, and worst of all, the novel, as the
dreaded, is sometimes dull, and often improbable; and the ma
is broken by too long episodes, which, though connected with
disproportionate and tedious. We read with abhorrence the p
in which Julia, with whose character we are interested on acco
the general purity of her sentiments and the propriety of her co
without any immediate solicitation, deliberately proposes to b
the mistress of Carberry, on account of their mutual love, and
his convenience. Many parts of the tale, however, are related
interesting manner, and may afford amusement to those who d
in reading works of this nature.

Art. 27. *Memoirs of M. de Brinloc:* containing some Vie
English and Foreign Society. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. 6d.
Cadell and Davies.

The hero of these memoirs is a supposed French emigrant,
flies from the savage persecution of his countrymen, first to
and afterward to London. The recital of his adventures, and
rious collateral incidents, is conducted with considerable skill
manifests a mind that is capable of discriminating and portrayin
light and shade of human character. We pursue the fortunes
principal personages of the tale with undiminished interest; a
easily suffer ourselves to be carried along by a train of events whi
can readily fancy to have occurred in real life. To these adva
which the narrative derives from the selection and distribution
materials, we may add those which naturally flow from an ani
and impressive style, from spirited conversations, and from occa
strokes of humour.

The Faculty are unmercifully treated in a part of this perform
but modern philosophers, and the abettors of the doctrine of *p*
tibility, are chiefly the objects of the author's unrelenting satire.
caricature of *Halfaz* betrays some coarse buffoonery, which
well be spared; and the abuse of amiable sentiments should have
more carefully distinguished from the sentiments themselves.
progressive melioration of the species is a generous and consoling
which we are not willing tamely to renounce, because it has
[illegible] to some absurd and extravagant reveries.

We will not contend that turpitude like that of Chevreville
existed: but we regret that a picture so odious and disgu
should be exhibited in a popular and otherwise entertaining di
of life and manners. The delineation of enormous criminality, w
is palliated by no amiable quality, nor by any visitation of rem
has fortunately little connection with the ordinary occurrences o
manity, and can afford neither pleasure nor improvement to the
ers of novels.

Art. 28. *The Novice of Saint Dominick.* By Miss Owenson, Author of St. Clair. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1806.

In the forty-third volume of our New Series, (p. 266.) we gave our willing testimony to the merits of this fair writer; who, as we have been since informed, is the daughter of Mr. Owenson, of the Theatre Royal, Dublin. The present production affords another proof of her intimate acquaintance with the finer feelings of the heart, and of the possession of talents fully adequate to the formation of a tender and attractive tale.

The interest of the narrative improves with its progress; it seldom transgresses the legitimate bounds of probability; it exhibits unity of design, and consistency and appropriation of character; it abounds in trying incidents; and all its tendencies are strictly moral. When the author indulges in description, either direct or indirect, she seldom fails to excel; and as specimens of powerful expression of emotion, we may safely refer to the parting scene between Imogen and the minor Canoness of St. Dominick, and to various interviews which occur in the course of the recital.

Having thus stated our very favourable opinion of her performance, Miss Owenson will excuse us for hinting that it would have lost none of its effect by a little compression; that her heroine is sometimes too much addicted to the contemplation of beautiful scenery, when her thoughts should be otherwise occupied; and that, with her quickness of perception and delicate sense of propriety, she profits somewhat tardily by the lessons of sad experience. The ode to the Butterfly is not destitute of graceful playfulness, but it is too much protracted, and wants finishing. We would also recommend a greater economy of epithets, and more attention to the subordinate accuracies of composition. *Thou* and *you* are often promiscuously applied to the same person; *transmit* is used for *transmute*, and *aqueous* for *aquatic*; the relative is too often suppressed, and is sometimes ambiguous by improper collocation as in the following notable instance: 'I found I was too weak to allow them to extract the ball, without endangering my life, *which* lay almost within a hair's breadth of a vital part.' Italian, whenever it appears, is printed with extreme negligence; and French names do not experience much better treatment. Thus *Montelimar* is written *Montelemarl*; *Venaissin*, *Venaison*; *Cavaillon*, *Cavillon*; *Joachim de Belhay*, *Rimi de Bulleau*; and D'Aubigné is styled the King's *écurie*.—Lastly, Montelimar is not visible from the coast of Provence; and the antiquities of St Remi are not within an evening's walk of Tarascon. These may appear to be too minute criticisms: but the little inattentions, to which they allude, disfigure the work, and may be easily avoided in the author's future publications.

Another novel from this Lady's pen has lately appeared.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 29. *Two Discourses designed to recommend a general Observance of the Lord's Supper*, by T. Drummond. 8vo. pp. 43. 1s. Johnson.

A passage

A passage in the preface to these Sermons seems not
thy of selection for our readers: ' With respect to the n
friends and adherents to the Established Church, it is gen
derstood that, comparatively speaking, few of them esteem
dispensable duty to think conformably to the direction of
formers in the reigns of Henry VIII., Elizabeth, or James
no impeachment of the characters of the venerable first adv
Protestantism, that they retained a few of their early pr
study and reflection had, in a great measure, emancipated th
the bondage of papal influence, but many disputable m
mained partially discussed; many ceremonials, from habitua
ance, were regarded as unquestionably defensible; if the in
diffused at that period, and the spirit of the times, had b
resemblance to the information and liberality of the pres
doubt can remain that the bond of uniformity would have e
far greater number than ever entered within the pale of the I
Church. It may not be an opinion absolutely chimerical, t
the dignitaries of the Church in the nineteenth century en
to revise the formula of subscription, the benevolence which
pel inculcates would be admitted as the most indisputable cr
Christian faith; whilst those texts of scripture usually quote
port of any particular hypothesis might furnish subjects of
vestigation; and the different explication of certain passages,
exciting pride or bigotry in the human mind, would be no l
garded as tests of the favour of heaven, or as the signs, te
testimonials of salvation.'

The sermons correspond with these observations, and are
to weaken the bases of those remnants of prejudice and sup
attachment which still too evidently prevail in what is char
as the church-*reformed*. If, it is said, ' the following pages c
as they are designed, to dissipate any of those formidable appr
which deter the majority of professing Christians from unit
celebration of the Lord's Supper,' the design of the write
accomplished. A kind of history of the ordinance and it
tions is here given, for a consideration of which we must
reader to the pamphlet itself; and if he does not entirely co
the sentiments here expressed, he will no doubt perceive th
tians of different denominations have formed, and do form,
notions concerning this institution, as well as other topics
Gospel leads them to regard.

Art. 30. *Sermons by Sir Henry Moncrieff Welwood, Bart.*,
F.R.S. Edinburgh, one of the Ministers of St. Cuthbert
burgh, &c. 8vo. pp. 480. 8s. 6d. Boards. Long
Co.

This volume consists of fourteen Discourses, not all
value, in our view, but some of them well deserving of bei
manner communicated for general perusal. In the preface, t
remarks, that the subjects, to which they solicit the attenti
public, cannot be new; and at this period of the Christian
even novelty of illustration is scarcely to be expected: but i
justice added, that the topics which they generally discuss a

petual importance to mankind, and involve their most permanent interests;—and, moreover, that, ‘though the truths of religion are always the same, the manners of the world, and the characters of men, to which they ought to be applied, are subject to perpetual variation.’ In this manner, our reverend Baronet pleads for sermon making without end.—With respect to the Discourses here collected into a volume, he observes that they are chiefly addressed to the congregation for which they were originally prepared, to which he officiated thirty years; and he allows himself to believe that among them they will neither be useless nor unacceptable. The seven which present themselves first to the reader appear to form the best part of the volume: they proceed from the heart of the writer, are pious and impressive, calculated to reach both the mind and conscience.

We shall not analize the contents of this volume, but allow the Rev. Baronet to explain his own intention, when he says; ‘With regard to the subjects here illustrated, the author has only to add, that it has been his chief object. to represent the doctrines and the duties of Christianity as inseparably united. in the faith and practice of those who embrace it. Practical religion is of much more importance than the solution of difficult questions; and the sanctification and salvation of those who profess the gospel, than the soundest opinions.’—In this sentiment we heartily concur.

Art. 31. *Sermons preached to a Country Congregation:* to which are added a few Hints for Sermons; intended chiefly for the Use of the younger Clergy; by the late William Gilpin, M.A., Prebendary of Salisbury, and Vicar of Boldre, in New-Forest. Vol. IV.* 8vo. pp. 423. 7s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

The estimation in which we held Mr Gilpin has always inclined us to speak handsomely of the productions of his pen; while at the same time, the publications themselves, though not faultless or complete, sufficiently merited respectful notice. The additional volume before us displays a farther claim as being posthumous, though intended by the author for the press, and corrected by his hand;--and also as being destined, by any profits which it may produce, to contribute to the support of a school which was benevolently established by himself at Boldre. Twenty-five Sermons are here offered to us, followed by twenty-three *Hints* for Sermons. Of the discourses, the first two cannot be supposed entirely to correspond with the professed design of the collection, because they were preached at visitations: but they are sensible, instructive and useful, though more directly suited to an audience superior to common *country congregations.*

When the reader reaches No 16, in this volume, he perceives an alteration in the plan of its contents: this discourse and the eight which follow have the same text, John v. 39. *Search the scriptures.* &c. and are accompanied by an advertisement, stating that ‘the following sermons are presented to the public merely as a specimen of a mode of preaching, which, it is thought, may be useful to a country congregation: the scriptures will be read with more pleasure, the more each little difficulty, which now and then stops an unlearned reader, is removed.—This mode of preaching might be carried still farther. The Sunday-lessons, from the Old Testament, are not all perhaps, selected with equal judgment.—Many of them contain difficulties which want explanation. If these lessons, as they occur, were now and then explained in the following sermon, it might have its use among the common people.'—After some remarks relative to the perusal of the scriptures several chapters of St. Matthew's gospel are brought under review; and an attempt is made to illustrate their contents, and to lessen the intricacy which attends some passages.—No. 25, which may be regarded as a sequel, from *John* vi 68, is very sensible, and calculated to instruct and improve the hearer or the reader. Indeed, a similar account may be given in general of the volume; although some parts are, we think, too slightly and hastily performed.

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* See M. Rev. Vol. xliii. N. S. p. 313.

We come now to the *Hints*, which occupy upwards of sixty pages of the volume, with great propriety and advantage. We find here much to approve and commend; and, had we room, we should be inclined to insert some specimens of the writer's thoughts and manner.—One, however, must suffice, from No 8; which, wandering perhaps from its motto, 1 *Pet.* iv. 8. proceeds to enumerate some instances in which men endeavour and hope to cover their offences:

'Some men (says the preacher,) will ask, what almsgiving to the poor will do for them? They are willing to cover their sins by great bounty in this way; but these traders must be informed, that as far as themselves are concerned, they might as well keep their alms in their pockets. *Theirs* is just the old popish practice of *indulgencies*: in both cases, money is paid for a liberty to commit sin.—In the same manner, others endeavour to cover their sins with what they call their virtues: Their honesty, their temperance, their veracity, or some other virtue which they think they possess, they set in opposition to some favourite sins; and hope under such cover to escape. But these men must not be surprised to hear, that virtues arising from such motives are no virtues at all; and instead of atoning for sins, are in fact themselves only sins in disguise.—Their circumstances and situation in life are with many considered as making a good cover for sin. While we live in the world, they cry, we must in some degree follow the ways of the world. The ways of the world are not always consonant with strict duty; but we must now and then temporize, or we are nothing.—But, perhaps, our situation in life is not so commonly seductive as we are apt to suppose. No honest profession has, I believe, any thing in it opposite to the duties of religion. If, however, we have unhappily chosen a profession which avowedly leads us into sin, we have our option; we may take either the broad or narrow way; and serve either God or mammon.'

To these *Hints*, which may be profitably studied by Divines, particularly the junior part, is immediately joined an *Analysis of St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans*, well worthy of a careful perusal, and an *Examination of Illustrations used by St. Paul in his Epistles.*

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 32. *Cow-pox Inoculation no Security against Small-pox Infection,* with above 500 Proofs of Failure. By William Rowley, M. D. &c. &c. 3d Edit. 8vo. 3s. Harris, &c. 1806.

As the subject of Cow-pox still continues to occupy a large share of the attention of the medical world, many treatises respecting it have lately issued from the press, some vehemently opposing the practice, and others zealously contending in its favour. In order that our readers may be able to form a just opinion respecting the state of the controversy, we shall first notice the works of those authors who are adverse to vaccination, and afterward examine the arguments that have been employed to repel the objections.

We begin with Dr. Rowley's publication; to which we give the precedence, not from any idea of its superior merit, but because we believe that it has been the most widely circulated, and has probably, on the whole, had the most effect in counteracting the progress of the vaccine inoculation. In remarking on a production of this kind, there are two points to which the attention must be directed; we are to have respect both to the strength of the arguments employed, and to the manner in which they are set forth. Dr. Rowley sets out as a most violent partizan, and continues to support his cause in an unparalleled strain of declamatory virulence. Although occasionally some symptoms of candor make their appearance, the general strain of the pamphlet is marked by a degree of illiberality which no cause can justify, and which irresistibly leads the mind to doubt the force of reasoning that requires the aid of such weapons. He repeatedly charges the friends of vaccination with the most gross and criminal transactions; he accuses them of giving false accounts of the success of their practice, and even of bribing their patients to conceal the truth; and he proceeds on the supposition that the greatest part of them persevere in supporting and recommending the cow-pox, although they are well aware of its inefficiency. This conduct on the part of Dr. R. is so directly contrary to that spirit which ought to guide philosophical discussions, and which can alone enable us to arrive at the truth, that it cannot be sufficiently reprobated.

The arguments here employed are buried under such a heap of declamation that it is with some difficulty that we are able to recognize them; they may, however, be reduced to the following heads. The cow-pox was unnecessary, because the variolous inoculation completely secured the patient, and was never fatal. The cow-pox has its origin 'from the ulcerous, stinking, horrid disorder, called grease in horses,' and must therefore itself necessarily produce an equally disgusting disorder. The cow pox is not a permanent security against the small pox The attempt to eradicate the small-pox is absurd, or even impious; and, lastly, the cow pox is followed by the most unpleasant effects, such as foul ulcers, incurable eruptions, &c —Our readers, who have attended to the state of the controversy, will at once be able to appreciate the weight of Dr. Rowley's arguments. They chiefly resolve themselves into discussions concerning matters of fact; and notwithstanding the very positive and dogmatical manner in which they are stated, it is well known that they are contradictory to the experience of those practitioners whose opinion is, on every account, the most intitled to credit.—Since the publication of this treatise, Dr. Rowley has been called from this mortal scene of contest, doubt, and difficulty.

Art. 33. *Serious Reasons for uniformly objecting to the Practice of Vaccination:* in Answer to the Report of the Jennerian Society, &c. By John Birch, Surgeon Extraordinary to the Prince of Wales, and to St. Thomas's Hospital. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Callow, &c. 1806.

On many accounts, the publication of Mr. Birch is more intitled to respect than that of Dr. Rowley. Whatever we may think of the force of his arguments, he at least treats a serious subject in a serious manner; and his pamphlet is free from vulgar scurrility.

Mr. Birch was one of those whose evidence before the House of Commons was unfavourable to vaccination; a circumstance for which he assumes to himself great credit:—but, on referring to the examination itself, we are not disposed to regard it as a subject of any particular exultation; since Mr. Birch had at that time never practised the vaccine inoculation; and his answers betray rather an indifference to the subject, or an ignorance of it, than a spirit of patient and deliberate investigation.

Although we have admitted that the treatise before us displays a less objectionable temper of mind than some other publications of the opposers of vaccination, we cannot commend the argumentative part of it. The author takes it for granted, as a fact which requires no farther proof, that small-pox has frequently recurred after vaccination; that in many instances the local affection of the arm, excited by the insertion of the vaccine virus, has produced fatal consequences; and that the vaccine disease has given rise to a train of new and distressing complaints, which have harrassed the patients for a long time after the operation. These points are rather assumed, as having been universally admitted, than introduced with that attention to minute detail which is requisite in a discussion of this kind. Were these assertions previously demonstrated, no doubt of the validity of Mr. Birch's conclusions against the cow-pox could remain: but, stated as they are at present, they make no impression on the body of evidence which is adduced on the other side of the question.—The only argument employed by Mr. Birch against vaccination, which can be considered as in any respect new, is of so extraordinary a nature, that it is necessary to state it in the words of the author: ' When such pains are taken to magnify the numbers that fall victims to small-pox, ... why is it not remembered, that in the populous parts of the metropolis, where the abundance of children exceed the means of providing food and raiment for them, this pestilential disease is considered as a merciful provision on the part of Providence, to lessen the burden of a poor man's family?'

To Mr. Birch's publication, is subjoined a small treatise by Mr. Rogers, who appears to have been the pupil of the former gentleman, and who embraces the same side of the question, writes much in the same style, and proceeds on the same principles. The positions unfavourable to vaccination are supported by a reference to facts, which are loosely or imperfectly detailed; while many circumstances, essential to the determination of the argument, are overlooked or disregarded.

Art. 34. *A Dissertation on the Failure and Mischiefs of the Disease called the Cow-pox;* in which the principal Arguments in favour of Vaccination are examined and confuted. By George Lipscomb, Surgeon. 8vo. 3s. Robinson.

Mr. Lipscomb is a decided and zealous opposer of the practice of vaccination; and he has fallen into the error, which unfortunately has been sanctioned by some of those who adopt his view of the subject, of supporting his cause more by declamation and humor, than by sober argument and patient investigation. He sets out with professions of candour and moderation, disclaims all personalities, and resolves to employ no other weapons than those of reason: but his good resolutions soon fail him, and he gradually falls into a strain which would assimilate with the pages of Dr. Rowley himself.

It appears that Mr. L. was one among those who uniformly opposed the introduction of the vaccine inoculation, from the time at which it was first recommended. He could not reconcile himself to the supposed origin of the disease; and he conceived it impossible that so slight an affection could permanently secure the constitution. His grand objections, however, depend on the degree of uncertainty which still prevails concerning some particular points, even among the warmest advocates for the cow-pox. They have differed about its origin, about the occurrence of eruptions, and about the possibility of its being received more than once by the same subject; whence he infers that our knowlege respecting it is not sufficient to countenance the appeals that have been made in its favour. The recurrence of small-pox after vaccination, and the production of disgusting and loathsome diseases, he considers as facts so well established as to require no farther proof. He does not, therefore, condescend to state particular cases, but deems it sufficient to appeal in general terms to the body of evidence already before the public.

Art. 35. *The Vaccine Contest;* or, " mild Humanity, Reason, Religion, and Truth, against fierce, unfeeling Ferocity, overbearing Insolence, mortified Pride, false Faith, and Desperation;" being an exact Outline of the Arguments and interesting Facts, adduced by the principal Combatants on both Sides, respecting Cow-pox Inoculation; &c. &c. By William Blair, M. A. Surgeon of the Lock Hospital and Asylum, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray. 1806.

This work is an answer to the publication of Dr. Rowley; our opinion of which we have just expressed without reserve. It is not easy to decide on the best method of answering such a performance; its numerous misrepresentations require patient and careful investigation; while its popular and declamatory style ought, if possible, to be opposed by something which would equally impress the minds of those who are influenced more by feeling than by the calm deductions of reason. Mr. Blair has chiefly directed his attention to the latter object; and in order most completely to expose the publication of his opponent, he has disposed his pamphlet in the form of a dialogue, introducing Dr. Rowley under the name of Bragwell as one of the interlocutors, and forming his part of the discourse almost entirely of quotations from his own book: the other speakers being a clergyman, who is supposed to have waited on Dr. Rowley for the purpose of asking his opinion on the merits of vaccination, and a surgeon who comes in towards the conclusion of the debate, and replies to the arguments used by the doctor; leaving the clergyman fully satisfied as to the security and safety of the cow-pox.

Mr Blair particularly endeavours to point out the misrepresentations of his opponent, and the weak foundation on which his facts are stated. Dr. Rowley adduced 504 cases, in which he positively asserts that the small-pox had occurred after vaccination: but, on examining this list, it is found that in 127 of them, the names or places of abode are wanting; and in [illegible], it is not mentioned by whom they were vaccinated, or indeed whether they ever had the disease at all. In 45 cases, also, it may be inferred that the patients had been exposed to the small-pox infection, previously to the vaccination having been performed; and it appears that, in these instances, no proof is given that the constitutional or local symptoms were manifested before the exposure to the variolous contagion. It is evident that Dr. Rowley has confounded mere inoculation with actual vaccination. From these observations, our readers will be able to appreciate the value of the doctor's cases; and they will probably agree with us in thinking, that it is unnecessary to pay any farther attention either to his facts or to his arguments.

In the latter part of this pamphlet, we have some interesting information respecting the effects produced by vaccination in the city of Vienna; and we find that the diminution of deaths from the small-pox has been beyond the most sanguine expectations. The following table exhibits the result of five years:

A. D.		Total Deaths.		By Small-pox.
1800,	—	14,600	—	835
1801,	—	[illegible]	—	[illegible]
1802,	—	14,522	—	61
1803,	—	[illegible]	—	27
1804,	—	14,035	—	2

It is painful to observe, as a contrast to this statement, that in our own metropolis "not less than [illegible] deaths from the small-pox occurred during the last three months of 1805." We think that the Jennerian Society is justified in attributing this circumstance "to the contagion of the small-pox, disseminated by the means of the revived and greatly increased practice of inoculation for this dreadful disease;" and we do not hesitate to ascribe a part at least of this evil to the mischievous publications of Dr. Rowley and his coadjutors.

In our next number, we shall resume the consideration of this subject, by noticing other publications on this controversy.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 36. *Tangible Arithmetic*; or, the Art of Numbering made easy, by Means of an Arithmetical Toy, which will express any Number up to 16, 666, 665; and with which, by moving a few Balls, a great Variety of Operations in Arithmetic may be performed. Intended to assist Mothers and Teachers in the Instruction of Children. By William Frend, Esq. Second Edition. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Mawman. 1806.

We have usually been, but not from intention, very late in noticing the ingenious and useful productions of this author. The present little tract deserves, from its intrinsic worth, to have had an earlier notice: but we now recommend it strenuously to those persons for whom, according to the title page, it was chiefly intended. It contains many useful suggestions and clever artifices of instruction; and the toy, as it is called, is a simple and ingenious machine of computation. It rarely happens that a person of Mr. Frend's accomplishments and attainments descends to the instruction of children; and when such an event occurs, it becomes the duty of parents to avail themselves of the advantage thus held out to them.

Art. 37. *Exempla Erasmiana*; or, English examples to be turned into Latin, according to the Order of the Rules in a 'Compendium of the Latin Syntax by Erasmus;' to which are added a few English Idiomatical Expressions, by B. D. Free, A.M. 12mo. pp. 188. Robinson.

This production, it is said, is intended for beginners, and with that view the examples are made not only few in number, but concise in themselves. It appears to us, however, that the exemplifications and the rules are sufficiently numerous, and the Latin words abounding. However this may be, the author ludicrously estimates both his own ability and the subject on which it is employed, when, having expressed a hope of an indulgent reception, he adds that, should his tract be introduced into schools, and obtain their patronage, he shall exclaim with Horace, "*Exegi monumentum ære perennius*"

Art. 38. *Fenelon's Treatise on the Education of Daughters*, translated from the French, and adapted to English Readers, with an original Chapter on Religious Studies. By the Rev. T. F. Dibdin, B.A. F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 24[illegible]. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It would be almost superfluous, at this period, to undertake an examination of this valuable treatise, with which the illustrious Fenelon opened his literary career. Shortly after its first appearance, he was appointed, without solicitation, to the important office of preceptor to the French princes, which laid the foundation of his splendid ecclesiastical preferment. The opinion thus unequivocally and honorably expressed by the court of France has received the fullest sanction from posterity: and though more recent publications have contributed to diminish the relative value of Fenelon's work, it will still continue to be read with advantage and delight.

The present translation is evidently the hasty production of a person to whom the language of the original is by no means familiar; and the substituted chapter on religious duties offers little that is new, and still less that is objectionable.—The volume is ornamented wit an interesting frontispiece, and the typography does great credit t the Cheltenham press.

Art. 39. *Fables, antient and modern,* adapted for the Use of Children from three to eight Years of Age. By Edward Baldwin Esq. With Copper Plates. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards Hodgkins.

In the execution as well as the design of this work, the autho is intitled to considerable praise. The usefulness of Fables in enforcing the precepts of morality, and in explaining maxims for th conduct of life, has been acknowleged in all ages: to bring down therefore, this method of teaching wisdom to the comprehension o young children is a praise-worthy undertaking. The adaptation o the Fables, which are here used, consists in changing the styl and language to such as will be proper in the first stages of childhood, in relating the subjects in such a manner as will engage th attention of young minds, and in explaining the several particular so as not only to improve the mind with knowlege, but also to engag the affections on the side of virtue. Mr. Baldwin professes that h intended to make the publication a compendium of the most familia points of natural history, and the knowlege of life, without being subjected to the discouraging arrangements of a book of science; and t be instrumental in forming the mind of the learner to habits of meditation and reflection. The intention was very laudable, and the execution of the design proves how well it has been fulfilled.

Art. 40. *An Introduction to Geography,* intended chiefly for the Us of Schools; including a short Account of the Solar System, an the Use of the Terrestrial Globe; with some Remarks on th Pronunciation of the Names of Foreign Countries, &c. By Isaa Payne. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Phillips and Fardon. 1806

Mr. Payne states his object, in the present Introduction, to hav been to explain in a clear and concise manner the most useful geographical terms, and to give a short description of the different countries of the world. This description is intended to embrace th boundaries, extent, chief towns, rivers, lakes, mountains, and finally the divisions of each country. He observes that, as the elements of astronomy are connected with geography, it is necessar that the learner should be made acquainted with the true figure o the earth, together with its diurnal and annual motions; as well a be furnished with a slight insight into the planetary system in general. For this reason, in the concluding part of the work, he ha given a short account of the planetary system, and has inserted som useful problems on the terrestrial globe.

A few typographical errors disfigure this useful little work; an some of the late geographical arrangements have been overlooke What will in future belong to Prussia it is not for us to guess, but i was well known that Neuchatel, which is here mentioned as subject t that kingdom, had been for some time severed from it by the heav hand of France: but mistakes of this kind in the present day ar scarcely a reproach.

Art. 41. *The Sunday School Miscellany*, Vol. I. 12mo. Boards. Williams and Smith.

Our next generation, both of the rich and of the poor, ought to be very good and very pious; for numerous efforts are made to imbue their tender minds with religious principles. This compilation, designed for the use of Sunday Schools, is well intended; but it promises to be too prolix. Twelve numbers constitute the present volume, including the history of a Sunday School, Dialogues, Anecdotes, and Juvenile Hymns. In the second volume, an abridgment of *Pilgrim's Progress* is promised. Let the compiler recollect that, in Sunday School education, knowlege must be "snatched, not taken;" and therefore that brevity should be consulted.

Art. 42. *Alfred and Galba*; or, the History of two Brothers. By J. Campbell. Small 8vo. pp. 175. 2s. Williams and Smith.

The principal object of this tale seems to be to instil into the minds of young persons those rigid religious principles which are usually termed methodistic; and a secondary motive, to give the reader an unfavourable opinion of the doctrine and practice of the church of Rome. Of the mode of composition, we cannot in any way approve; whatever methods may be taken to speak favourably of one religious mode of thinking, and unfavourably of another, the present is very improper; temperate discussion, and not partial colouring, is the only legitimate method. Abating, however, its religious cast in both sentiment and language, the tale is well told; and from the apt manner in which some of the elements of general knowlege are introduced, it may be useful to young people.

Art. 43. *Tales for Children*, in a Familiar Style; by Maria Joseph Crabb. 8vo. pp. 188. 2s. 6d. half bound. Darton and Harvey.

Simple and entertaining tales are here conveyed in a familiar and appropriate style; and their tendency is to promote the moral improvement of the reader. The general merit of the publication, therefore, renders it worthy of a place in the Nursery Book-case.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 44. *The Rights of Stock Brokers defended against the Attacks of the City of London*, or Arguments to shew that Persons, buying or selling Stock *only* by Commisssion, do not come within the meaning of the Word Broker, mentioned in the 6 Anne, c. 16. To which is added a Statement of the Proceedings on this Subject in the Court of Requests. By Francis Bailey, of the Stock-Exchange. 8vo. pp. 46. Richardsons. 1806.

We have here an elaborate account of the legislative provisions which respect brokers, accompanied with able comments. In the judgment of this writer, the several statutes warrant the following conclusions. '1°. That prior to the year 1697, the office and employment of a broker was defined by Act of Parliament, and well understood to be *a person negotiating between merchants and tradesmen respecting their goods, wares, and merchandize and bills of exchange.* 2°. That on the passing of the act of 1697, a new species of trade was engrafted on the former office and employment of a broker, and which consisted in *buying and selling Exchequer bills and tallies, Bank of E gland bills and notes, and the stock of any company incorporated by Act Parliament or Letters Patent.* 3°. That on the expiration of t above act in 1707, this new employment of the broker ceased a determined; and his trade was, in consequence thereof, reduced its ancient limits. 4°. That in passing the 6th Anne c. 16, t legislature intended to include under the word broker, such as a now commonly called Exchange brokers. 5°. That stock broke could not be intended by the act, since there was no funded debt the time whereby they could gain a livelihood. 6°. That neith the 10th Anne, c. 19. s. 121, nor 7 Geo. II. c. 8. s. 9. have altere the law upon this subject, since it is plainly implied therein tha *other* persons, besides brokers, may legally buy and sell stock, an that their evidence may be admitted in a Court of Justice. 7°. Th the 3 Geo. II. c. 31 still preserves the ancient idea of a broker, an defines him as in the act of James I. in 1604, to be a *person negotiating between merchants and tradesmen respecting their goods and bills exchange.* 8°. And lastly, that the attempt of the city to impose thi tax, or to levy the fine on any other persons than those exercising th ancient trade of a broker, is oppressive and unjust, and consequenth ought to be opposed.'

Against these conclusions, the decision in the case of Janssen an Green militates, which is reported in IV Burrow, p. 2103. Th Judges of the Court of King's Bench there held, that the parliamentary sense of the term *broker* is to be collected from Sir Joh Bernard's act, 7 Geo. II. c. 8. s. 9.: but it is contended by Mr Bailey in opposition to what has been ruled in this case, that th 7 Geo. II. recognizes *other* persons than brokers selling stock b commission; and also that the funds, in which brokers now negotiat contracts did not exist at the time at which the act passed. The answer of lawyers to this advocate of the brokers probably woul be, that the case of the parties is within the mischief which the statute was intended to remedy.

Art. 45. *The Miseries of Human Life;* or the Groans of Samue Sensitive and Timothy Testy, with a few supplementary Sigh from Mrs. Testy. In Twelve Dialogues. 4th Edit. 12mo. 8 boards. Miller.

Art. 46. *More Misseries!!* addressed to the morbid, the melancholy and the irritable. By Sir Fretful Murmur, Knt. 12mo. 5s. boards Matthews and Leigh.

Among the curious inventions of the present æra, we are now t reckon the manufacture of *amusement* out of our *miseries*; and thi fashion seems to *take*, since there is already a competition in th market. Collections of miseries *to be laughed at* are here arranged i a great mass:—large enough, indeed, to create real distress; and truly, in looking over these *precious* articles, we have had the misfortune to find but few that were exactly adapted to their purpose. I consequence, the general effect was rather sombrous than enlivening, and to vent our disappointment, we added the following to this magazine of miseries:

"Reading a book with the expectation of being convulsed with laughter, and having the risible muscles preserved perfect sinecures."

We will not assert that these witty exhibitors of *miseries* have shewn no sport, by making *game* of what is not generally considered as game, but they have not kept on the true scent. In this ludicrous hunt, we are continually thrown out, and stumble over miseries *not to be laughed at*. The humorous miseries are a distinct class; and their exhibition requires much art and management. They will not bear to be strung like onions on a rope, nor to be shaken together, like large and small potatoes in a sack

In the first of these publications, a ready and humorous application of classical reading often occurs in the quotations: though here the wit too often centres in a pun.

Art. 47. *Effusions of Love, from Chatelar to Mary Queen of Scotland.* Translated from a Gallic Manuscript in the Scotch College at Paris. Interspersed with Songs, Sonnets, and Notes explanatory, by the Translator. 12mo. pp. 157. 5s. Boards. Chapple

If apostrophes and inversions, and points of admiration and interrogation, and broken sentences, and a profusion of asterisks, constituted the essential ingredients in the language of passion, these fragments would possess no common merit:—but something more is necessary, at least to touch the hearts of grey haired critics, who sicken at the sight of every flimsy and high flown effusion.

The poetical scraps are in a style more simple and subdued; and stanzas like the following are highly welcomed amid the contorsions and agonies of prose:

' *The Picture of my Queen.*

' Ah, wou'dst thou see the azure sky,
  And feast upon the blooming rose,
Ethereal blue is Mary's eye,
  The damask tinge her cheeks disclose.

' Wou'dst thou behold the lily dress'd,
  And view each graceful wave display'd,
Gaze on her gently heaving breast,
  And see her locks in gold array'd.

' Or wou'dst thou hear the bird of night,
  Whose notes melodious fill the grove,
'Tis Mary's song that yields delight,
  So peerless is the queen of love.'

The same picture in prose, in a subsequent passage, we conceive to be not less reprehensible in a moral point of view than the publication of those prints which are, from time to time, proscribed by the agents of a salutary police. As we glory in the liberty of the press, so we feel indignant at every attempt to prostitute such an invaluable blessing. If the editor should *favour* us with the still unpublished transcripts relative to *David Rizzio*, to which he alludes, we would seriously exhort him to insert nothing that can excite the warm imaginations of the young, or alarm the delicacies of chastity and virtue.

CORRE-

CORRESPONDENCE.

In our last Number, p. 429. we took notice of a pamphlet on th use of Mercury, by Dr. Philip Wilson, of Worcester, and foun ourselves obliged to speak of it in terms that were not very favorabl We have since received a Letter from Dr. W. in which he generall admits the propriety of our animadversions, but wishes to state t the public some circumstances in explanation. We therefore mak the following extract from his letter:

'Excuse my addressing you in consequence of the severe, though must confess in a great degree just censure passed by you on m observations on the use and abuse of Mercury. The truth is, the were not written either for the eye of the Physician or the Critic, bu intended as an address to the unlettered part of the public of th neighbourhood, with a view to do away their prejudices with respe to this medicine, which often opposed an insuperable obstacle to i employment. With respect to what is said of its internal use, I wa anxious, as far as truth would permit, to yield to their prejudice that I might not by attempting too much, wholly fail of obtaining m object. It appeared to me that should a person acquainted wit medicine read these observations, the following sentence would suff ciently qualify this part of them. "There are some cases when powerful means are required to rouse the bowels to action, or a stron stimulus applied to their enhaling vessels is beneficial." How man cases this sentence includes, you are aware. I feel much hurt, an indeed ashamed, that these observations should be considered as serious treatise on the use and abuse of mercury. I thought the circum stances of their being addressed to the public, and the style in whic they are written, would have secured me against this; although i now appears to me that I should have taken some farther precau tions.'

On this exculpation, we shall only say *Valeat quantum vale potest.*

L. C. K. is received: but we have not yet had time to look int the tract in question; nor do we perceive that we can with pro priety interfere in a question of a local nature, on which we hav no means of forming a just and decisive opinion.

We shall very soon be able to gratify the wishes of X. Y. Z.

☞ In the last No. p. 387, the price of Art. IX. should b 1l. 11s. 6d. P. 397, l. 16, for '*it*,' read *d*. P. 431, l. 16, fro bottom, for '*mined*,' read *ruined*.

⁂ The APPENDIX to Vol. LI. N. S. of the MONTHLY REVIE is published with this Number, and contains a variety of articles i FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, an *Index*, for that Volume.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

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Art. I. *The History of the Manners, Landed Property, Government, Laws, Poetry, Literature, Religion, and Language of the Anglo-Saxons.* By Sharon Turner, F.A.S. Vol. IV. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

It has been often objected to History, that it is chiefly occupied with the schemes of the disturbers and the atchievements of the destroyers of mankind; and that it does not condescend particularly to notice the state and circumstances under which the great mass of the people have existed, at the different periods of which it professes to treat. This remark, however, will not apply to the work before us, which forms a most interesting supplement to Mr. Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons [*], and will afford much pleasing information to those who are desirous of investigating the customs, manners, and attainments of our remote ancestors; while it also traces to their origin those principles of law and government which have operated, with the progress of knowlege and civilization, to the formation of the British Constitution and character. The reader must be aware that the farther the historian extends his glance to the early days of our progenitors, the less clear will be his view; and that we ought to expect from him rather sketches and rough outlines than a finished picture. It is praiseworthy in Mr. Turner, that he does not attempt to satisfy extravagant curiosity; that he does not present phantoms for realities; and that he no where exaggerates facts, nor deduces conclusions which they do not warrant. The result of his laborious inquiries is given with care, and with accuracy; and in detailing subjects which have furnished matter for warm controversy, he has discarded theory, and has suffered documents to speak for themselves:

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[*] For our account of the former volumes, see M. R. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 293. and Vol. xl. N. S. p. 272.

' The great object of the work (he states) has always been
preserve those interesting particulars concerning our Anlgo-Sax
ancestors which had been left unnoticed in their ancient MSS., and
throw light where it was possible on those parts of their histo
which had been usually deemed confused and obscure. To fulfil the
purposes, I have examined every MS. and author within my rea
which promised to be useful. I have been scrupulous to insert
circumstance without a sufficient authority, and it has been alwa
important to me that my quotations should be faithful.'

As a kind of introduction to the History of the Manners, Go
vernment, Laws, Literature, Arts, Religion, and Language
the Anglo-Saxons, we are presented with a short account
the Saxons in their pagan state. ' As, however, (says Mr. Tu
ner,) the converted Anglo-Saxon remembered the practices
his idolatrous ancestors with too much abhorrence to reco
them for the notice of future ages, and as we have no run
spells to call the pagan warrior from his grave, we can only s
him in those imperfect sketches which patient industry m
collect from the passages that are scattered in the works whi
time has spared.' These evidences prove him to have been acti
and fearless, ferocious and predatory. The continental Saxons,
the eighth and preceding centuries, lived under an aristocra
of chieftains, without a king or supreme head, except in ca
of war, when they appointed a temporary chief; and at t
time of their invasion of England, they were under war-king
who were continued till a limited monarchy was establishe
Among them four orders existed, viz. the Etheling or noble
the free-man; the freed-man; and the servile.

The objects of Saxon adoration are still preserved in o
names for the days of the week; and some persons will
surprised to hear that the term *Easter*, which is yet retained
express the season of our great pascal solemnity, is derive
from *Eostre*, one of the goddesses worshipped by our savag
ancestors; who certainly offered human sacrifices to the
idols.

Though it has been doubted whether the Saxons had t
use of letters when they possessed themselves of Englan
reasons may be offered to make it probable that they were n
then unacquainted with alphabetic writing: yet none of the
compositions remain; and it is supposed by the present hist
rian that their alphabetic characters, if they possessed any, we
chiefly used for divinations, charms, and funeral inscriptions

Having in the first book taken a view of those fierce, ido
latrous, and cruel pirates who possessed themselves of th
south part of this island during the fifth and sixth centurie
and having portrayed them as they existed in the North

German

Germany, Mr. Turner follows them into the country which they invaded, and notices the improvements which have been made in the intellectual and moral qualities of a people whose character was so unpromising:

> 'From such ancestors a nation has, in the course of twelve centuries, been formed, which, inferior to none in every moral and intellectual merit, is superior to every other in the love and possession of useful liberty: a nation which cultivates with equal success the elegancies of art, the ingenious labours of industry, the energies of war, the researches of science, and the richest productions of genius.'

It is concluded, with much probability, that the first step to the improvement of the invading Saxons was derived from their intercourse with a people who had been for a considerable period obedient to the Roman Government; and that, as the conquered Greeks had softened the Romans, so the conquered Britons ameliorated the Saxons. A farther change was produced in them by their conversion to Christianity.

Under the head of *Manners*, distinct chapters are assigned to Infancy,—Education,—Food,—Drinks and Cookery,—Dress,—Houses, Furniture, and Luxuries,—Conviviality and Amusements,—Marriages,—Classes and Condition of Society,—Gilds or Clubs,—Trades, Mechanical Arts, and foreign Commerce,—Money,—Chivalry,—Superstitions,—and Funerals. From this enumeration, it will be apparent that Mr. Turner's account of the social state of the Anglo-Saxons is not desultory; and as specimens of the mode in which he has executed his undertaking, we shall make a few short extracts from this part of the work. The chapter relative to their houses, furniture, and luxuries, proves that, soon after their reception of Christianity, they grew more refined and luxurious than we their descendants are apt to imagine:

> 'The Anglo-Saxons had many conveniences and luxuries which men so recently emerging from the barbarian state could not have derived from their own invention. They were indebted for these to their conversion to Christianity. When the Gothic nations exchanged their idolatry for the Christian faith, hierarchies arose in every converted state, which maintained a close and perpetual intercourse with Rome and with each other. From the letters of Pope Gregory, of our Boniface, and many others, we perceive that an intercourse of personal civilities, visits, messages, and presents, was perpetually taking place. Whatever that was rare, curious, or valuable, which one person possessed, he communicated, and not unfrequently gave to his acquaintance. This is very remarkable in the letters of Boniface and his friends, of whom some were in England, some in France, some in Germany, and elsewhere. The most cordial phrases of urbanity and affection are usually followed by a present of apparel, the aromatic productions of the east, little articles of fur-

niture and domestic comfort, books, and whatever else pror
be acceptable to the person addressed. This reciprocity of lil
and the perpetual visits which all ranks of the state were in tl
of making to Rome, the seat and centre of all the arts,
wealth, and industry of the day, occasioned a general diffus
use of the known conveniences and approved inventions wh
then appeared.'

To the institutions of our Saxon ancestors, the fair
indebted for the superior rank which they hold in Eu
society, compared with that which ladies enjoy in th
After having explained the provisions made by the *mor*
(or matrimonial settlement) for the wife among the
Saxons, Mr. Turner remarks:

'Nothing could be more calculated to produce a very
dissimilarity between the Gothic nations and the Oriental stat
this exaltation of the female sex to that honour, consequer
independence, which European laws studied to uphold. As t
cation of youth will always rest principally with women in t
ductile part of life, it is of the greatest importance that
sex should possess high rank and estimation in society, and
could more certainly tend to perpetuate this feeling than th
lege of possessing property in their own right, and at th
disposal.

'That the Anglo-Saxon ladies both inherited and disp
property as they pleased, appears from many instances: a
mentioned who devised land by her will, with the consent
husband, in his lifetime. We read also of land which a v
sold in her husband's life. We frequently find wives the par
sale of land, and still oftener we read of estates given to wo
devised by men of affluence to their wives. Widows selling
is also a common occurrence; so is the incident of women dev
That they inherited land is also clear, for a case is mentioned
there being no male heir the estate went to a female. Wor
pear as tenants in capite in Doomsday.'

In the chapter on the Classes and Conditions of Socie
perceive that the annexation of political privileges to
property is of antient date; and that the improvements
were afterward introduced were in accordance with t
ginal principle:

'The birth that was thought illustrious conferred personal
but no political rank or power. No title was attached to i
descended by heirship and gave a perpetuity of political pr
That was a later improvement. In theoretical reasoning, an
eye of religion, the distinction of birth seems to be an unjus
dice; we have all one common ancestor, and the same Creat
tector, and judge; but the morality and merit of society is t
duct of very complicated and diversified motives, and is
superabundant as to suffer uninjured the loss of any one

centives and supports. The fame of an applauded ancestor has stimulated many to perform noble actions, or to preserve an honourable character, and will continue so to operate while human nature exists. It creates a sentiment of honour, a dread of disgrace, an useful pride of name, which, though not universally efficient, will frequently check the vicious propensities of passion or selfishness, when reason or religion has exhorted in vain. The distinction of birth may be therefore added to the exaltation of the female sex as another of those peculiarities, which have tended to extract from the barbarism of the Gothic nations a far nobler character than any that the rich climates of the east could rear.

'That there was a nobility from landed property distinct from that of birth, attainable by every one, and possessing (what noble birth had not of itself) political rank and immunities, is very often clear from several passages. It is mentioned in the laws, as an incentive to proper actions, that through God's gift a servile thræl may become a thane, and a ceorl, an eorl, just as a singer may become a priest, and a bocere (a writer) a bishop. In the time of Ethelstan it is expressly declared, that if a ceorle have the full proprietorship of five hides of his own land, a church, and kitchen, a bell-house, a burhgate-seat, and an appropriate office in the king's hall, he shall thenceforth be a thegen or thane by right. The same laws provide that a thegen may arrive at the dignity of an eorl, and that a massere, or merchant, who went three times over sea with his own craft, might become a thegen. But the most curious passage on this subject is that which attests, that without the possession of a certain quantity of landed property the dignity of sitting in the witena-gemot could not be enjoyed, not even though the person was noble already. An abbot of Ely had a brother who was courting the daughter of a great man, but the lady refused him because, although noble, he had not the lordship of forty hides, and therefore could not be numbered among the proceres or witena. To enable him to gratify his love and her ambition, the abbot conveyed to him certain lands belonging to his monastery. The nuptials took place, and the fraud was for some time undiscovered.

'The principle of distinguishing men by their property is also established in the laws. Thus we read of twyhyndum, of syxhyndum, and of twelfhyndum men. A twyhynde man was level in his were with a ceorle, and a twelfhynde with a thegen. But though property might confer distinction, yet it was the possession of landed property which raised a man to those titles which might be called ennobling. Hence it is mentioned, that though a ceorle should attain to a helmet, mail, and a gold-hilted sword, yet if he had no land he must still remain a ceorle.'

It must not, however, be forgotten that a large proportion of the Saxon population was in a state of slavery: but, through the influence of Christianity, which mildly attempered the feelings of the individual, the custom of manumission began to prevail; and thus the benevolent spirit of the Gospel powerfully contributed to the amelioration of general society. It

was

was not in this instance only that the religion embraced by th Anglo-Saxons contributed to their improvement. The fortunate connection, which Christianity established between th Clergy of Europe, favoured the advancement of the mechanica arts, and opened the door to traffic and the exchange of commodities. To the Roman ecclesiastics Mr. T. ascribes the introduction of coined money among the Anglo-Saxons, and h founds this belief on the expression which they applied to coin ‘This was *mynet*, a coin, and from this, *mynetian*, to coin, an *mynetere*, a person coining. These words are obviously th Latin *moneta* and *monetarius*; and it usually happens that whe one nation borrows such a term from another, they are indebted to the same source for the knowlege of the thing whic it designates.’

Gold, the author is inclined to believe, was used among thes people in an uncoined state; and according to his etymolog of the word shilling[*], it is probable that silver was originall employed as a medium of exchange in the same way. Th Saxon coinage, however, is a dark subject; and Mr. Turner cannot bring his mind to a decisive judgment.

Many curious particulars are related in the Book on Landed Property. It is known that the most essential parts of what is called the Feudal System prevailed among the Anglo-Saxons; and that the modes of inheritance called *gavel kind* and *borough english* descended from them: but it appears that they had no prescribed form of words for the conveyance of a freehold estate, and that their then deeds had no wax-seals, which were introduced at the Norman conquest. We might conclude from the documents belonging to the Anglo-Saxons, in which different kinds of property are described, that England was formerly blessed with a more genial climate than it at present enjoys; since in these writings *a vineyard* is not unfrequently mentioned.

As a proof of the duration of the names of places, we shall make a quotation from the chapter containing particulars on this subject:

> ‘The local denominations by which the various places in England are now known seem to have been principally imposed by our Anglo-Saxon ancestors. Most of them, in their composition, betray their Saxon origin; and whoever will take the trouble to compare the names in Doomsday-book, which prevailed in the island during the

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[*] ‘The etymology of the word scyllinga would lead us to suppose it to have been a certain quantity of uncoined silver; for whether we derive it from ꞅcylan to divide, or ꞅceale, a scale, the idea presented to us by either word is the same; that is, so much silver cut off, as in China, and weighing so much.’

time of the Confessor, with the present appellations of the same places, will find that the greatest number of them correspond. The hundreds in the county of Sussex were sixty-three, and still remain so: of these, thirty-eight bore the same names as now; and of the villæ or maneria, which are about three hundred and forty-five, there are two hundred and thirty with appellations like their present.

'The following list will shew the correspondencies between the ancient and modern names of the counties which occur in Doomsday-book:

Chenth.
Sudsexe.
Sudrie.
Hantescire.
Berrochescire,
or
Berchescire.
Wiltescire.
Dorsete.
Sumersete.
Devenescire.
Cornvalgie.
Warwicscire.
Staffordscire.
Sciropescire.
Cestrescire.
Derbyscire.
Snotinghamscire.

Midelsexe.
Hertfordscire.
Bockinghamscire.
Oxenefordscire.
Glowecesterscire.
Wirecesterscire.
Herefordscire.
Grentebrigescire.
Huntedunscire.
Bedefordscire.
Northantonescire.
Ledescestrescire.
Roteland.
Eurvicscire.
Lincolescire.
Exsessa.
Nordfolc.
Sudfolc.

'London is mentioned in Bede as the metropolis of the East Saxons in the year 604, lying on the banks of the Thames, "the emporium of many people coming by sea and land."'

On the interesting subject of the Government of the Anglo-Saxons, we highly approve the manner in which Mr. Turner has made his report. Speaking of the dignity and prerogatives of the *cyning* or king, he observes that

'All the prerogatives and rights of the Anglo-Saxon cyning were definite and ascertained. They were such as had become established by law or custom, and could be as little exceeded by the sovereign as withheld by his people. They were not arbitrary privileges of an unknown extent. Even William the Conqueror found it necessary to have an official survey of the royal rights taken in every part of the kingdom; and we find the hundred, or similar bodies in every county, making the inquisition to the king's commissioners, who returned to the sovereign that minute record of his claims upon his subjects, which constitutes the Domesday-book. The royal claims in Domesday book were, therefore, not the arbitrary impositions of the throne, but were those which the people themselves testified to their king to have been his legal rights. Perhaps no country in Europe can exhibit such an ancient record of the freedom of its people, and the limited prerogatives of its ruler.'

The nature and powers of the *Witena-Gemot*, or assembly of the wise men, are afterward carefully and faithfully delineated, under the following topics of inquiry: What its members were styled? of whom it was composed? by whom convened? the times of its meeting? the place? its business? and its power? To all these questions, satisfactory answers cannot be returned: but it is highly creditable to Mr. Turner, that he confines himself to such a representation as real evidence can substantiate, and does not endeavour by the manner of his report to favour any system. We extract a passage or two from this chapter:

'We know what was necessary to exalt a ceorl to a thegen, but we cannot distinctly ascertain all the qualifications which entitled persons to a seat in the witena-gemot. There is, however, a curious passage which ascertains, that a certain amount of property was an indispensable requisite, and that acquired property would answer this purpose as well as hereditary property. The possession here stated to be necessary was 40 hides of land. The whole incident is so curious as to be worth transcribing*.—Guddmund desired in matrimony the daughter of a great man, but because he had not the lordship of 40 hides of land, he could not, though noble, be reckoned among the proceres; and therefore she refused him. He went to his brother, the abbot of Ely, complaining of his misfortune. The abbot fraudulently gave him possessions of the monastery sufficient to make up the deficiency. This circumstance attests that nobility alone was not sufficient for a seat among the witan, and that forty hides of land was an indispensable qualification.

'It would be highly interesting to know whether they who possessed this quantity of land had thereby the right of being in the witena-gemot, or whether the members of this great council were elected from the territorial proprietors, and sat as their representatives. I am not able to decide this curious question. But I cannot avoid mentioning one person's designation, which seems to have the force of expressing an *elected* member. Among the persons signing to the act of the gemot at Clofeshoe in 824 is "Ego Beonna *electus* consent. et subscrib."—

'The king presided at the witena-gemots, and sometimes, perhaps always, addressed them. In 993 we have this account of a royal speech. The king says, in a charter which recites what had passed at one of their meetings, "I benignantly addressed to them salutary and pacific words. I admonished all—that those things which were worthy of the Creator, and serviceable to the health of my soul, or to my royal dignity, and which should prevail as proper for the English people, they might, with the Lord's assistance, discuss in common."

'One of their duties was to elect the sovereign, and to assist at his coronation. Another was to co-operate with the king in making laws. Thus Bede says, of the earliest laws we have, that Ethelbert established them "with the counsel of his wise men." The introductory passages of the Anglo-Saxon laws which exist, usually express that they were made with the concurrence of the witan.'

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* And of *repeating* too, as Mr. T. apparently thinks. See p. 117.

Hence it appears that the witena-gemot, the legislative and supreme judicial court of the Anglo-Saxons, resembled our present House of Lords: but, in the Saxon assembly, the members represented territorial property rather than hereditary dignity; and in this respect it bore a strong analogy to our modern House of Commons.

We are next presented with a history of the Laws of the Anglo Saxons respecting Homicide, Personal Injuries, Theft, Adultery, the Were and the Mund, Sureties, Legal Tribunals, Ordeals and Legal Punishments, and Trial by Jury.

It is observable that the principle of pecuniary punishment, which exists in our modern code, and particularly in cases of adultery, pervaded the laws of the Anglo-Saxons and of the German nations; and hence it arose that every man was valued at a certain sum, which was called his *were*, and whoever took his life was obliged to pay this *were*. In this mode, compensation was offered to the family or relations of the deceased, considering the homicide as a *private* wrong; and satisfaction was rendered to the community for the *public* wrong by another pecuniary fine imposed on the murderer, which was called the *wite*. In the same manner, also, as the *were* operated as a personal protection, the *mund*, which was another fine, became the guardian of a man's household peace. 'This privilege of the mund,' says Mr. Turner, 'seems to be the principle of the doctrine that every man's house is his castle.'

No apology will be required of us for transcribing a passage from the chapter on the Trial by Jury:

'In considering the origin of the happy and wise institution of the ENGLISH JURY, which has contributed so much to the excellence of our national character, and to the support of our constitutional liberty, it is impossible not to feel considerable diffidence and difficulty. It is painful to decide upon a subject on which great men have previously differed. It is peculiarly desirable to trace, if possible, the seed bud, and progressive vegetation of a tree so beautiful and so venerable.

'It is not contested that the institution of a jury existed in the time of the Conqueror. The document which remains of the dispute between Gundulf the bishop of Rochester and Pichot the sheriff, ascertains this fact. We will state the leading circumstances of this valuable account.

'The question was, Whether some land belonged to the church or to the king? "The king commanded that all the men of the county should be gathered together, that by their judgment it might be more justly ascertained to whom the land belonged." This wa obviously a shire-gemot.

"They being assembled, from fear of the sheriff, affirmed tha the land was the king's: but as the bishop of Bayeux, who preside at that placitum, did not believe them, he ordered that if they knew that what they said was true, they should chuse twelve from among themselves, who should confirm with an oath what all had declared But these, when they had withdrawn to counsel, and were there ha rassed by the sheriff through his messenger, returned and swore t the truth of what they asserted."

'By this decision the land became the king's. But a monk, wh knew how the fact really stood, assured the bishop of Rochester a the falsehood of their oath, who communicated the information to th bishop of Bayeux. The bishop, after hearing the monk, sent fo one of the twelve, who falling at his feet, confessed that he had fo sworn himself. The man on whose oath they had sworn theirs, mad a similar avowal.

'On this the bishop "ordered the sheriff to send the rest to Lon don, and twelve other men from the best in the county, who con firmed that to be true which they had sworn."

'They were all adjudged to be perjured, because the man whos evidence they had accredited, had avowed his perjury. The churc recovered the land, and when "the last twelve wished to affirm tha they had not consented with those who had sworn, the bishop sai they must prove this by the iron ordeal. And because they under took this and could not do it, they were fined three hundred pound to the king by the judgment of other men of the county."

'By this narration we find, that a shire-gemot determined on th dispute, in the first instance; but that in consequence of the doub of the presiding judge, they chose from among themselves twel who swore to the truth of what they had decided, and whose dete mination decided the case.

'The jury appears to me to be an institution of progressive growt and its principle may be traced to the earliest Anglo-Saxon time One of the judicial customs of the Saxons was, that a man might b cleared of the accusation of certain crimes, if an appointed number o persons came forwards and swore that they believed him innocent o the allegation. These men were literally juratores, who swore to veredictum; who so far determined the facts of the case as to acqu the person in whose favour they swore. Such an oath, and such a acquittal, is a jury in its earliest and rudest shape; and it is remark able that for accusations of any consequence among the Saxons o the continent, twelve juratores were the number required for an ac quittal Thus, for the wound of a noble which produced blood, o disclosed the bone, or broke a limb; or if one seized another by th hair, or threw him into the water; in these and some other case twelve juratores were required. Similar customs may be observed i the laws of the continental Angli and Frisiones, though sometim the number of the jury or juratores varied according to the charge every number being appointed, from three to forty-eight. In th

law

laws of the Ripuarii we find that in certain cases the oaths of even seventy-two persons were necessary to his acquittal. It is obvious, from their numbers, that these could not have been witnesses to the facts alleged. Nor can we suppose that they came forward with the intention of wilful and suborned perjury. They could only be persons who, after hearing and weighing the facts of the case, proffered their deliberate oaths that the accused was innocent of the charge. And this was performing one of the most important functions of our modern juries.'

We shall not here attend to the state of Learning, which was confined to the monasteries during the period which we are examining: but it is impossible not to commend the diligence with which Mr. Turner has studied the Latin poetry of Aldheim, Bede, and Alcuin, as well as the vernacular poetry of the Anglo-Saxons, the principles of whose versification he has endeavoured to elucidate.

If Literature made no great advancement among the Anglo-Saxons, still less were they acquainted with Science; yet some of their productions in the Arts were not contemptible. Specimens of their architecture still remain; and on the zig zag fret or moulding by which it is distinguished, Mr. Turner makes this etymological remark:

> 'The Saxon word used to denote the adorning of a building is gefrætwian, or frætwan, and an ornament is frætew; but frætan signifies to gnaw or to eat; and upon our recollecting that the diagonal ornament of Saxon building is an exact imitation of teeth, we can hardly refrain from supposing that the ornament was an intended imitation of teeth. Frætew and frætwung, which they used to signify ornament, may be construed fret-work, or teeth-work. The teeth which the Saxon diagonals represent, are, I believe, marine teeth. If so, perhaps they arose from the stringing of teeth of the large sea animals.'

In the last book, the structure and mechanism of the Anglo-Saxon language are explained, according to the system of Mr. Tooke, in his *Diversions of Purley*; observations are offered on its originality; and proofs of its comprehensiveness and power are adduced from our own language, which is chiefly Saxon, by taking some passages from our principal authors in prose and verse, and marking in *italics* the Saxon words which they contain. As we have already extended this article to a considerable length, we cannot enter into a discussion of this concluding chapter: but we must lament that the copious subject of the Anglo-Saxon language should have been dismissed in so concise a manner. In closing this volume, however, we sincerely acknowlege our obligations to the author for the pleasure

sure which he has afforded us, and for having made a valuable addition to the store of our domestic history, by introducing the English reader to an acquaintance with the private life of his Saxon ancestors.

ART. II. *Memoirs of Samuel Foote, Esquire*, with a Collection of his genuine Bon-mots, Anecdotes, Opinions, &c. mostly original; and three of his dramatic Pieces, not published in his Works By William Cooke, Esq. 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. 13s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

IT will readily be allowed that the subject of the present memoirs was a character much more likely to excite our interest, than many of his dramatic brethren whose histories have been pompously recorded. We agree, therefore, with Mr. Cooke in regretting that no adequate biography of him has yet appeared; and we shall briefly notice a few of the particulars which are here related.

Respecting the qualifications of Mr. Cooke for the tas which he has imposed on himself, we are told that

> ‘ Very early in life he had the pleasure of being introduced to th genuine son of comic humour; and finding in him all the charms conversation which could attach a young man with a literary an lively turn of mind, he was careful in recollecting and noting down a many of his anecdotes, conversations, bon-mots, &c., as convenienc would permit: not with any intent, at that time, to publish them but as the records of a man who drew on him the gaze of th fashionable and literary world,—as the reminiscences of hours whic afforded such exquisite delight.
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> ‘ On the death of Foote, which happened about nine years aft their first acquaintance, the Editor had the pleasure of continuing i acquaintance with many respectable persons who were the intimat of his late friend's earlier days, and who had seen him in all the situ tions of his varied life. From these he was curious to glean as muc of his manners, habits, and conversation, as he could; and from the readiness to oblige, as well as from the researches of an old and val able friend (whose name, which he is not permitted to mention her would be a passport for every thing curious or authentic in litera or dramatic history), he has collected such materials as embolden hi to publish these volumes. He is at the same time ready to allo that the work might have been more enlarged, had it been begun im mediately after the death of Foote, by some of those cotemporari here alluded to: when the ardour of congenial talents, and the *racine* of events, would have made greater and more forcible impression but under the actual circumstances, he not only presumes that h performance will be found the best that has yet appeared, but rather sanguine in thinking it the best that can *now* be effected.’

After some prefatory remarks, Mr. Cooke proceeds to state that

'Samuel Foote was borne at Truro, in Cornwall, about the year 1720: his father, John Foote, was a very useful magistrate of that county, and enjoyed the posts of commissioner of the prize office and fine contract. His mother (descended in the female line from the old Earl of Rutland) was the daughter of Sir Edward Goodere, bart., who represented the county of Hereford in parliament for several years, and brought Mr. Foote a large fortune.'—

'The father died soon after the establishment of his children in the world, but the mother lived to the extreme age of *eighty-four*, through various fortunes. We had the pleasure of dining with her in company with a grand-daughter of her's, at a barrister's chambers in Gray's Inn, when she was at the advanced age of *seventy-nine*; and though she had full sixty steps to ascend before she reached the drawing room, which looked into the gardens, she did it without the help of a cane, or any other support, and with all the activity of a woman of forty.

'Her manners and conversation were of the same cast: witty, humorous, and convivial; and though her remarks, occasionally, (considering her age and sex,) rather strayed "beyond the limits of becoming mirth," she, on the whole, delighted every body, and was confessedly the heroine of that day's party.

'She was likewise in face and person the very model of her son Samuel—short, fat, and flabby, with an eye that eternally gave the signal for mirth and good humour: in short, she resembled him so much in all her movements, and so strongly identified his person and manners, that by changing habits, they might be thought to have interchanged sexes'—

'Foote's first education was at one of the three principal grammar schools long since founded in the city of Worcester, and which have always borne a considerable reputation for learning in all its branches, as well as a general attention to the morals of the pupils. The school to which he was sent was, at that time, under the care of Dr. Miles, a particular friend of his father's, and a man of great eminence in the discharge of his duties'

The following circumstance is said to have first unfolded his peculiar talent of mimicry:

'Being at his father's house during the Christmass recess, a man in the parish had been charged with a bastard child; and this business being to be heard the next day before the bench of justices, the family were conversing about it after dinner, and making various observations. Samuel, then a boy between eleven and twelve years of age, was silent for some time; at last he drily observed, "Well, I foresee how this business will end, as well as what the justices will say upon it."—"Aye," said his father (rather surprised at the boy's observation), "well, Sam, let us hear it" Upon this the young mimic, dressing up his face in a strong caricature likeness of justice D——, thus proceeded:

" ' Hem! hem! here's a fine job of work broke out indeed a *feller* begetting bastards under our very noses, (and let me tell yo good people, a common labouring rascal too,) when our taxes are s great, and our poor rates so high; why 'tis an abomination; we shal not have an honest servant maid in the neighbourhood, and th whole parish will swarm with bastards; therefore, I say, let him b fined for his pranks very severely; and if the rascal has not money, (as indeed how should he have it?) or can't find security, (as indeed how should such a *feller* find security?) let him be clapp'd up i prison till he pays it.'

" Justice A—will be milder, and say, Well, well, brother, this is not a new case, bastards have been begotten before now, and bastards will be begotten to the end of the chapter; therefore, though the man has committed a crime—and indeed I must say a crime tha holds out a very bad example to a neighbourhood like this—yet le us not ruin the poor fellow for this one fault: he may do bette another time, and mend his life; therefore, as the man is poor, le him be obliged to provide for the child according to the best of hi abilities, giving two honest neighbours as security for the pay ment."

' He mimicked these two justices with so much humour and di crimination of character, as "to set the table in a roar;" an among the rest, his father, who demanded, why *he* was left out, he also was one of the Quorum? Samuel for some time hesitated but his father and the rest of the company earnestly requesting it, began:

" Why, upon my word, in respect to this here business, to be su it is rather an awkward affair; and to be sure it ought not to be; th is to say, the justices of the peace should not suffer such things be done with impunity:—however, on the whole I am rather of t brother A———'s opinion; which is, that the man should pay a cording to his circumstances, and be admonished—I say *admonished* —not to commit so flagrant an offence for the future."

After having passed through his school education with th character of an arch, clever lad, Foote was removed by electio to Worcester College, of which Dr. Gower was then provos There, we are told, ' he was not altogether idle in respect study, for he had an ambition that counteracted his love pleasure, and frequently induced him to turn his attention his books; and thus besides rendering himself a very compe tent Greek and Latin scholar, he pursued a course of *bell lettres* reading, very rare in young men of his description.'

' * A favourite word of his father's on the bench; which, with h plain matter-of-fact manner of pronouncing it, and twirling h thumbs at the same time, drew so correct a picture of the justice, met the warmest approbation of the whole company; and even his father, who, so far from being offended, rewarded him for h good humour and pleasantry.'

from College, he entered himself in the Temple: but the study of the law was little suited to the excentricities of such character:

'During his continuance in the Temple, he was seen there *pro forma*, situated in handsome chambers, surrounded by a well furnished library, and eating his way (*via* commons) to the profession of the law. He is remembered by a few now living, in that situation; and they report him to have been one of the greatest beaux (even in those days of general dress), as well as one of the most distinguished wits who frequented the Grecian and the Bedford.'—

'Here Foote appeared; in the flush of youth, wit, and fortune. Dr. Barrowby, no mean judge in every thing which respected elegant knowledge, was present at his first exhibition at the Bedford, and he always spoke of him as a young man of most extraordinary talents. —"He came into the room," said he, "dressed out in a frock suit of green and silver lace, bag wig, sword, *bouquet*, and point ruffles; and immediately joined the critical circle of the upper end of the room. No body knew him. He, however, soon boldly entered into conversation; and by the brilliancy of his wit, the justness of his remarks; and the unembarrassed freedom of his manners, attracted the general notice. The buz of the room went round, 'Who is he? whence comes he?' &c.; which nobody could answer; until a handsome carriage stopping at the door to take him to the assembly of a lady of fashion, they learned from the servants that his name was Foote, that he was a young gentleman of family and fortune, and a student of the Inner Temple."

'He continued in the Temple but a very few years; and yet even this period was sufficient to exhaust a fortune, which, by all accounts, was very considerable, and which, perhaps, with a genteel economy, might have given him the *otium cum dignitate* independent of any profession. But he was incapable of the ordinary restraints of life: he dashed into all the prevailing dissipations of the time; and what the extravagance of dress, living, &c. had not done, the gaming table finally accomplished. He struggled with embarrassments for some time: but want, imperious want, is an austere monitor, and must at last be attended to by the most thoughtless spendthrift. He accordingly soon found himself at a stand; his creditors grew obstinate and impatient, his friends, as is usual in such cases, deserted him; and he found that something must necessarily be done, to provide the means of subsistence.

'In this situation, it was very natural for him to think of the stage. *Acting* was a science which he already knew theoretically; and, conversing so much with players as he usually did, he was perhaps not a little incited by their disengaged, *free* manner of living, to become a candidate for the profession.'

Foote's first *entrée* was at the Haymarket Theatre on the 6th of February, 1744, in the character of Othello: on which performance it was remarked by Macklin, that 'it was little better than a total failure.' He seems, however, to have been

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soon led to a better estimate of his powers, by assuming double character of author and performer; and he opened Haymarket Theatre with a piece of his own writing, cal *The Diversions of the Morning*.

'This consisted of the introduction of several characters in r life, then well known, whose manner of conversation and expressi he very ludicrously hit off in the diction of his drama, and furtl represented by an imitation not only of their tones of voice, but e of their very persons. Among these characters there were a certi physician, who was much better known from the oddity and sing larity of his appearance and conversation, than from any eminer in the practice of his profession; a celebrated oculist at that time the height of vogue and popularity, &c.; and in the latter part the piece, under the character of a theatrical director he mimick with great humour the several styles of most of the principal p formers on the English stage.

'An entertainment of this sort met at first with every degree success that his most sanguine wishes could expect. The audie saw a species of performance quite novel to the stage brought f ward and supported by a young man, independent of any other au iliary than the fertility of his own pen, and his own powers performance; while the author, feeling himself bold in this suppc beheld his future fortunes opening before him.

'He soon found, however, that he reckoned without his ho for, whether from the alarm excited in the theatres royal, or the sentment of most of the performers who smarted under the lash his mimicry, the civil magistrates of Westminister were called u to interfere; and, under the sanction of an act of parliament limiting a number of play-houses, opposed to Bayes's new rai troops a *posse* of constables, who, entering the theatre in magiste array, dismissed the audience, and left the laughing Aristophane consider of new ways and means for his support.'

Foote, however, remarks his biographer, 'had found his *forte*;' and accordingly, from this time to the end of life, he continued to amuse the public as a writer and act with various though generally with splendid success.

Of his inattention to pecuniary concerns, numerous pro are given; and indeed in this particular he seems to h been incorrigible *.

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* While we are speaking of Foote's prodigality, it would be pardonable not to record at the same time some instances of his nerosity. We are told that "his mother, who brought a la fortune to her husband as heiress to the Goodere estates, was latte by a carelessness and dissipation so peculiar to this family, in a gr measure a dependent on her son's bounty; as was also his brotl who was brought up to the church. To the latter he allowed si pounds a year, besides the freedom of his table and theatre; to for

'About the close of this season (1748) our author had a very considerable fortune left him by a relation of his mother, which enabled him once more to move in all that splendour of dissipation which was so congenial to his temper. He remained in London for some time, in order to identify this great change of fortune to his friends; and then moved off to the Continent, to add one more English dupe to the intrigues and fripperies of the French nation†.'

We again find him figuring in a similar style of action, on the success of his celebrated comedy *the Mayor of Garratt.*

'The receipts produced by this comedy recruited our hero's finances so powerfully, that as his purse was generally the barometer to his spirits, he dashed into all kinds of higher extravagance. He made alterations both in his town and country house, enlarged his hospitalities, and laid out no less a sum than 1200*l.* in a magnificent service of plate. When he was reminded by some friends of these extravagancies, and particularly the last, he turned it off by saying, "he acted from a principle of economy; for as he knew he could never keep his *gold*, he very prudently laid out his money in *silver*, which would not only last longer, but in the end sell for nearly as much as it originally cost."'

In the year 1766, while on a visit at the house of Lord Mexborough, Foote had the misfortune to lose his leg, in consequence of a fall from an unruly horse, on which he was mounted, as is here said, by way of check to his vanity in

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former a pension of one hundred pounds till her death, which happened some years before that of her son *.'

'* Under one of her temporary embarrassments, she wrote the following laconic epistle to our hero; which, with his answer, exhibit no bad specimen of the thoughtless dispositions of the two characters:—

"DEAR SAM,

"I AM in prison for debt: come and assist your loving mother,

"E. FOOTE."

"DEAR MOTHER,

"SO am I; which prevents his duty being paid to his loving mother by her affectionate son, "SAM FOOTE."

"*P S.* I have sent my attorney to assist you; in the mean time let us hope for better days."

'† This being the *third* fortune left him, he set up a dashing carriage, &c.; and, as emblematical of the event, chose the following motto:

'*Iterum, iterum, iterumque.*'

asserting his skill in hunting. The joke went too far in consequence: but the late Duke of York, who was one of t party, 'took care to alleviate this accident by every instance kindness in his power; and among other good offices, he o tained for him, in the July following, a royal patent to erect theatre in the city and liberties of Westminster, with a pri lege of exhibiting dramatic pieces there, from the 14th of M to the 14th day of September, during his natural life.'

Here, again, money flowed plentifully into his pocket, a was as usual speedily lavished away:

'The receipts from "*The Devil on two Sticks*" exceeded his mo sanguine expectations. There was little or no demand for any var tion in the theatrical bill of fare during the whole season; so that alone was said to have produced him between three and four thousa pounds. Twelve hundred pounds of this sum he lodged at h banker's, as a deposit for future contingencies; beside five hundr in cash, which he intended to take over with him to Ireland, whe he was engaged for the ensuing winter.

'His usual *demon* of extravagance, however, still haunted him; fo taking Bath in his way to Hollyhead, the September following, fell in with a nest of gamblers (the usual attendants on this fashio able place of resort), who, finding him with full pockets and hig spirits, availed themselves of their superior dexterity with conside able success. Several of the frequenters of the rooms saw this, b it was too common a case for private interference; besides, friendsh is not the usual commerce of watering places. At last his frien Rigby, who happened just then to be at Bath, took an opportuni to tell him how grossly he was plundered; and further remarke "that from his careless manner of playing and betting, and his ha of telling stories when he should be minding his game, he must in th long run be ruined, let him play with whom he would."

'Foote, who perhaps by this time had partly seen his error, bu was too proud to take a lesson in the character of *a dupe*, very ridi culously and ungratefully resented this advice He told his friend with an unbecoming sharpness, "that although he was no politica by profession he could see as soon as another into any sinister design laid against him: that he was too old to be schooled; and that a to any distinction of rank between them to warrant this liberty, h saw none; they were both the king's servants, with this difference i *his* favour,—that he could always draw upon his talents for indepen dence, when perhaps a courtier could not find the king's treasury al ways open to him for support."

'On receiving this return, Rigby, as may be well imagined, mad his bow, and walked off; while *the dupe* went on, and not only los the five hundred pounds which he had about him, but the twelv hundred at his banker's; and thus, stripped of his last guinea, wa obliged to borrow a hundred pounds to carry him to Ireland.'

Fortune, however, was not yet tired of bestowing favors on this her spoiled child; and he returned from Ireland recruited in his finances, and farther established in his reputation; 'enjoying the *otium cum dignitate* at North End upon an enlarged scale; holding out the strongest excitements to good society, entertainment for both mind and body.'

It is with sorrow that we see the latter part of the life of this British Aristophanes clouded with cares. Indeed, he may be said to have fallen a victim to the most infamous calumny. He had been involved in a dispute with the celebrated Duchess of Kingston, in consequence of being suspected of intending to represent her on the stage as Lady Kitty Crocodile, in *the Trip to Calais*; into which play he had also introduced a character, supposed to represent a person who was in her confidence, under the title of Dr. Viper[*]:

'From the first report of Foote's *Trip to Calais* being in contemplation, obscure hints and inuendoes appeared occasionally in the newspapers, relative to his private character; which, from various circumstances, as from their particularly appearing in the newspaper of which Jackson was editor, the public unanimously attributed to this man. On the representation of *The Capuchin*, this plan of calumny began to assume a more settled form; and a report was industriously circulated about the town, that a charge would soon be brought forward in a judicial form against the manager of the Haymarket Theatre for an attempt to commit a very odious assault.'

A bill of indictment was afterward preferred, in consequence of which a trial commenced in the court of King's Bench; and the result was that the Jury, without leaving the box, returned their verdict of *not guilty*:—but it was beyond the power of any verdict to remedy the ill effects of the prosecution on Foote's health:

'Though he had many respectable persons much interested in his behalf, none seemed more anxious than his old friend, and fellow labourer in the dramatic vineyard, the late Mr. Murphy; who, as soon as the trial was over, took a coach, and drove to Foote's house in Suffolk-street, Charing-cross, to be the first messenger of the good tidings.

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[*] Of this person the following account is here given:

'He was a clergyman of the name of Jackson, better known by the assumed title of Dr. Jackson, who had for many years supported himself partly as an editor of a newspaper in London, and always by a life of shift and expediency. He at this time mostly resided at Kingston-house, and was supposed to be of her Grace's *cabinet council*. This man, after going through a variety of adventures incident to such characters, at last settled in Ireland: where his restless and intriguing spirit led him to join the rebellion in that kingdom in the year 1797, for which he was tried and found guilty; but saved himself the disgrace of a public execution, by taking poison the night before his receiving sentence of death.'

> ‘ Foote had been looking out of the window, in anxious expec tion of such a message. Murphy, as soon as he perceived him, wav his hat in token of victory; and jumping out of the coach, ran stairs to pay his personal congratulations: but alas! instead of meetin his old friend in all the exultation of high spirits on this occasion, he sa him extended on the floor, in strong hysterics; in which state he con tinued near an hour before he could be recovered to any kind of re collection of himself, or the object of his friend's visit.
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> ‘ On the return of his senses, finding himself honourably acquitte he received the congratulations of his friends and numerous acquain ances, and seemed to be relieved from those pangs of uncertain and suspence which must have weighed down the firmest spirits so trying an occasion. But the stigma of the charge still lingered his mind; and one or two illiberal allusions to it, which were ma by some unfeeling people, preyed deeply on his heart. The m who for so many years had basked in the sunshine of public favo who was to live in a round of wit and gaiety “or not to live all,” was ill calculated to be at the mercy of every coarse fool, inhuman enemy.’

Foote did not long survive this shock, but died at Dover his way to France, on the 21st of October, 1777, in the fift seventh year of his age.

Vols. II. and III. of this work are occupied by remarks Foote's character, public and private, and by a collection of bon-mots, characters, opinions, &c. of Foote and his cotemp raries. Drs. Monsey, Johnson, Swift, and Franklin, Garri Burke, the Delavals, Rich, Hiffernan, Murphy, &c. &c. casionally figure in this assemblage; and many amusing an dotes are introduced that are new to us, as well as many m that we have before heard. In his preface, Mr. Cooke th speaks of this part of his publication:

> ‘ Of the characters, anecdotes, opinions, &c., most were rela by Foote himself, and many by the literary society in which lived. Some, being either referred to in the range of conversati or growing out of a corresponding subject, the Editor thought fit subjoin, from a wish to give to the original matter a richness of propriate colouring and diversification.
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> ‘ In short, *this* part may be considered not only as the *school Foote*, but of his time: where the hero is discovered among friends and cotemporaries “in his night-gown and slippers;” wh the wit, the whim, the humour, the taste, and general character, the man will be best seen; and where perhaps will be found the b apology for many parts of his life; as “he who had such jocu propensities, with such inexhaustible sources for pleasing manki could have no serious views of ever becoming their enemy.”

The subsequent anecdote of Garrick is related as origina and we certainly do not recollect to have before met with it:

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'When Garrick first undertook to play *Bayes*, in *The Rehearsal*, he had some doubts of the propriety of taking-off his brother performers; and therefore made a proposal to Giffard, the manager of the theatre in Goodman's fields, to permit him to begin with him as a kind of an apology for the rest. Giffard, supposing that Garrick would only just glance at him to countenance the mimicry of the others, consented: but Garrick hit him off so truly, and made him so completely ridiculous, at rehearsal, that Giffard, in a rage, sent him a challenge; which Garrick accepting, they met the next morning, when the latter was wounded in the sword arm.

'The comedy of *The Rehearsal* had been during this time advertised for the Saturday night ensuing; but the duel intervening (which none but the parties and their seconds knew of at that time, and very few ever since), the play was put off for a fortnight longer, *on account of the sudden indisposition of a principal performer.* At the end of that time it came out with imitations of most of the principal actors; but Giffard was totally omitted.'

A criticism by the late Lord Orford, on the dramas of Beaumont and Fletcher, is also worth quotation:

'The following letter, not published in any of his works, was written by the late Lord Orford in answer to a letter of lady C——n, requesting his opinion of *The Scornful Lady* by Beaumont and Fletcher, since altered to the comedy of *The Capricious Lady*.

" I return your Ladyship the Play, and will tell you the truth. At first I proposed just to amend the mere faults of language, and the incorrectness: but the farther I proceeded, the less I found it worth correcting; and indeed I believe nothing but Mrs. Abington's acting can make any thing of it. It is like all the rest of the pieces of Beaumont and Fletcher: they had good ideas, but never made the most of them; and seem to me to have finished their plays when they were drunk, so very improbable are the means by which they produce their *denouement*.

" To produce a good play from one of theirs, I believe the only way would be, to take their plan, draw the characters from nature, omit all that is improbable, and entirely re-write the dialogue; for their language is at once hard and pert, vulgar and incorrect. and has neither the pathos of the preceding age nor the elegance of this. They are grossly indelicate, and yet have no simplicity. There is a a wide difference between unrefined and vicious indecency: the first would not invent fig leaves; the latter tears holes in them after they are invented."

The supplementary dramatic pieces are not of much importance. They are followed by Foote's Defence of his *Minor*, in answer to some remarks on it, which was printed in a pamphlet in the year 1760, and noticed in our 23d Vol. p. 318.

Art. III. *General Zoology*, or Systematic Natural History, by George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S. &c. With Plates from the first Authorities and most select Specimens, engraved by Mr. Heath and Mrs. Griffith. Vol. VI. *Insecta.* 2 Parts. 8vo. pp. 520. with 137 Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1806.

Very judiciously, Dr. Shaw prefaces this continuation of an elegant and important work with some general observations on insects, and a short notice of the Linnéan classification of these minute productions of animated Nature. In a few additional pages, he might have sketched the history of Entomology, accompanied by biographical anecdotes of the principal authors: but brevity and rapidity seem to have presided over this portion of his labours; and he not only dispenses with regular references and synonyms, but presses his exposition of the whole class of insects; which contains at least twenty thousand distinct species, into the compass of a single volume. Such a superficial view of the subject may satisfy the bulk of *ephemerous* readers, but must excite the regret of all who are in the least conversant in this department of Natural History; and who cannot avoid reflecting that many genera and numerous species are wholly omitted, and others very imperfectly elucidated. With Dr. Shaw's powers of description and accuracy of observation, something more, we conceive, might have been easily accomplished, without incurring the risk of prolixity, or repelling those who are solicitous of instruction. As an entertaining and well-penned illustration of a few of the most remarkable kinds of insects, the present volume is intitled to very considerable commendation: but it can hardly be regarded as forming a part of a regular and systematic series. We are, indeed, aware that the interests of knowlege are too often sacrificed to the influence of more mercenary motives; that the length of a moral treatise, or the dimensions of an Encyclopædia, must be regulated by the state of the literary market; and that *undertakers* must be obtained, who can adjust their communications to certain prescribed limits. Whether our skilful naturalist has found it expedient to submit to such trammels, we cannot pretend to determine: but we observe, with sincere satisfaction, that even within his very circumscribed boundaries, he selects the most alluring portions of his materials, and contrives to bestow popularity and interest on a subject which seemed to have exhausted the language of technical definition, and to have drawn on its votaries the unmeaning ridicule of the ignorant and the thoughtless.

The *Coleopterous* genera, which pass under the Doctor's rapid review, are, *Scarabæus*, *Lucanus*, *Dermestes*, *Ptinus*, *Hister*, *Gyrinus*,

Gyrinus, Pausus, Byrrhus, Silpha, Cassida, Coccinella, Chrysomela, Hispa, Bruchus, Curculio, Attelabus, Cerambyx, Leptura, Necydalis, Lampyris, Cantharis, Elater, Cicindela, Buprestis, Dytiscus, Hydrophilus, Carabus, Tenebrio, Meloe, Mordella, Staphylinus, and *Forficula*. Thus it is obvious that at least as many more are passed in silence; and if from the genera we descend to the species, it will suffice to remark that, according to the most recent discoveries, about five hundred of the latter are included under *Scarabæus*, only *five* of which are here particularized.

The ensuing account of *Ptinus fatidicus* is repeated from the *Naturalist's Miscellany*, a work published some time ago by the same author:

'Among the popular superstitions which the almost general illumination of modern times has not been able to obliterate, the dread of the Death-Watch may well be considered as one of the most predominant, and still continues to disturb the habitations of rural tranquillity with groundless fears and absurd apprehensions. It is not indeed to be imagined that they who are engaged in the more important cares of providing the immediate necessaries of life should have either leisure or inclination to investigate with philosophic exactness the causes of a particular sound: yet it must be allowed to be a very singular circumstance that an animal so common should not be more universally known, and the peculiar noise which it occasionally makes be more universally understood. It is chiefly in the advanced state of spring that this alarming little animal commences its sound, which is no other than the call or signal by which the male and female are led to each other, and which may be considered as analogous to the call of birds; though not owing to the voice of the insect, but to its beating on any hard substance with the shield or fore part of its head. The prevailing number of distinct strokes which it beats is from seven to nine or eleven; which very circumstance may perhaps still add in some degree to the ominous character which it bears among the vulgar. These sounds or beats are given in pretty quick succession, and are repeated at uncertain intervals; and in old houses where the insects are numerous, may be heard at almost every hour of the day; epecially if the weather be warm. The sound exactly resembles that which may be made by beating moderately hard with the nail on a table. The insect is of a colour so nearly resembling that of decayed wood, viz. an obscure greyish brown, that it may for a considerable time elude the search of the enquirer. It is about a quarter of an inch in length, and is moderately thick in proportion, and the wing-shells are marked with numerous irregular variegations of a lighter or greyer cast than the ground-colour In the twentieth and twenty-second volume of the Philosophical Transactions may be found a description of this species by the celebrated Derham, with some very just observations relative to its habits and general appearance; and it seems singular that so remarkable an insect should have almost escaped the notice of more modern entomologists. In the twelfth edition of the Systema Naturæ of Linnæus it does not appear; but is probably the *Dermestes tessulatus* of Fabricius, in which case he seems to have placed it in a wrong genus. Ridiculous, and even incredible as it may appear, it is an animal that may in some measure be tamed: at least it may be so far familiarized as to be made to beat occasionally, by taking it out of its confinement, and beating on a table or board, when it will readily answer the noise and will continue to beat as often as required.

'We must be careful not to confound this animal, which is the real Death Watch of the vulgar, emphatically so called, with a much smaller insect of a very different genus, which makes a sound like the ticking of a watch, and continues it for a long time without intermission. It belongs to a totally different order, and is the Termes pulsatorium of Linnæus.

'I cannot conclude this slight account of the Death-Watch without quoting a sentence from that celebrated work the Pseudodoxia Epidemica of the learned Sir Thomas Brown, who on this subject expresses himself in words like these. "He that could eradicate this error from the minds of the people would save from many a cold sweat the meticulous heads of nurses and grandmothers."

The minute and tedious details concerning the singular genus *Pausus*, transmitted by Dr. Afzelius to the Linnéan Society, are stated with great precision; and we are presented with amusing remarks on the history of some sorts of *Attelabus*, *Lampyris*, *Elater*, *Dytiscus*, *Hydrophilus*, *Carabus*, and *Forficula*.—The *Hemipterous* families here selected are *Blatta*, *Mantis*, *Plasma*, *Gryllus*, *Fulgora*, *Cicada*, *Notonecta*, *Nepa*, *Cimex*, *Aphis*, *Chermes*, *Coccus*, and *Thrips*.

Mantis oratoria, or the *Camel Cricket*, is thus described:

'This insect, which is a stranger to the British isles, is found in most of the warmer parts of Europe and is entirely of a beautiful green colour. It is nearly three inches in length, of a slender shape, and in its general sitting posture is observed to hold up the two fore-legs, slightly bent, as if in an attitude of prayer: for this reason the superstition of the vulgar has conferred upon it the reputation of a sacred animal, and a popular notion has often prevailed, that a child or traveller having lost his way, would be safely directed by observing the quarter to which the animal pointed when taken into the hand. In its real disposition it is very far from sanctity; preying with great rapacity on any of the smaller insects which fall in its way, and for which it lies in wait with anxious assiduity in the posture at first mentioned, seizing them with a sudden spring when within its reach, and devouring them. It is also of a very pugnacious nature, and when kept with others of its own species in a state of captivity, will attack its neighbour with the utmost violence, till one or the other is destroyed in the contest. Rœsel, who kept some of these insects observes that in their mutual conflicts their manœuvres very much resemble those of Huzzars fighting with sabres; and sometimes one cleaves the other through at a single stroke, or severs the head from its body. During these engagements the wings are generally expanded, and when the battle is over the conqueror devours his antagonist.'

The devastating progress of the locust is likewise commemorated with singular effect: but the details are too long for quotation, and most of them have already appeared before the public in other forms. Dr. Shaw very plausibly conjectures that the locusts mentioned in the New Testament, as the food of St. John the Baptist, were of the species which Linné denominates *Gryllus cristatus*, and which at this day are exposed in the market as an article of food, in various parts of the Levant.

On the singular history of the *Aphides*, or *Plant-lice*, which has already more than once attracted our notice, Dr. Shaw has borrowed much important information from a paper of the late Mr. Curtis, which appeared some time ago in the Philosophical Transactions.

Under the *Lepidopterous* order, the somewhat fanciful subdivisions of the Linnéan school are shortly explained, and a few examples are adduced of some of the most remarkable species of *Papilio*, *Sphinx*, and *Phalæna*. On the transformations incident to these families of insects, our readers will doubtless be pleased with the author's sensible and pious reflections:

'The alteration of form which the whole of the papilionaceous tribe undergo, and in a particular manner the changes above-described of the genus Sphinx, afford a subject of the most pleasing contemplation to the mind of the naturalist, and though a deeply philosophical survey demonstrates that there is no real or absolute change produced in the identity of the creature itself, or that it is in reality no other than the gradual and progressive evolution of parts before concealed, and which lay masqued under the form of an insect of a widely different appearance, yet it is justly viewed with the highest admiration, and even generally acknowledged as in the most lively manner typical of the last eventful change.

'If any regard is to be paid to a similarity of names, it should seem that the ancients were sufficiently struck with the transformations of the Butterfly, and its revival from a seeming temporary death, as to have considered it as an emblem of the soul; the Greek word ψυχη signifying both the soul and a butterfly. This is also confirmed by their allegorical sculptures, in which the butterfly occurs as an emblem of immortality.

'Modern naturalists, impressed with the same idea, and laudably solicitous to apply it as an illustration of the awful mystery revealed in the sacred writings, have drawn their allusions to it from the dormant condition of the papilionaceous insects during their state of chrysalis, and their resuscitation from it; but they have, in general, unfortunately chosen a species the least proper for the purpose;

viz. the Silkworm, an animal which neither undergoes its changes under the surface of the earth, nor, when emerged from its tomb, is it an insect of any remarkable beauty; but the larva or caterpillar of the Sphinx, when satiate of the food allotted to it during that state, retires to a very considerable depth beneath the surface of the ground, where it divests itself of all appearance of its former state, and continues buried during several months; then rises to the surface, and bursting from the confinement of its tomb, commences a being of powers so comparatively exalted, and of beauty so superior as not to be beheld without the highest admiration. Even the animated illustration taken from the vegetable world, so justly admired, as best calculated for general apprehension, must yield in the force of its similitude to that drawn from the insect's life, since Nature exhibits few phenomena that can equal so wonderful a transformation.'

The hurried notices with respect to the *Phalenæ* are agreeably relieved by an abridged history of the Manufacture of Silk.

Part II. of this volume commences with the *Neuropterous* tribes, which are discussed in a few pages; the only genera which are particularized being *Libellula*, *Ephemera*, *Phryganea*, *Hemerobius*, *Myrmeleon*, *Panorpa*, and *Raphidia*. The most prominent passages in this division of the work are those which recount the progressive history of the *Libellula varia*, from the egg to the winged state, and the cunning manner in which the *Myrmeleon* captures its prey.

Dr. Shaw's illustrations of the *Hymenopterous* order are limited to *Cynips*, *Tenthredo*, *Sirex*, *Ichneumon*, *Sphex*, *Chrysis*, *Vespa*, *Apis*, *Formica*, and *Mutilla*. The apparent severity of nature, it is observed, in giving birth to the genus *Ichneumon*, may be much diminished by supposing that, after the operation of piercing the skin and depositing the eggs has been performed, the caterpillar feels no acute pain, and loses its life by gradual decay.

The account of the common honey-bee is chiefly composed of extracts from Mr. John Hunter's Memoir inserted in the Philosophical Transactions for 1792. Some additional and very curious information on this subject might have been selected from Mr. Huber's observations, which will shortly fall under our consideration.

Oestrus, *Tipula*, *Diopsis*, *Musca*, *Tabanus*, *Culex*, *Empis*, *Conops*, *Asilus*, *Bombylius*, and *Hippobosca*, are the generic titles of Dr. Shaw's *Dipterous* catalogue; and most of them are dismissed with provoking brevity. We may remark, however, that Mr. Bracy Clark's wonderful account of *Oestrus equi*, and Mr. Bruce's relation of the destructive properties of the *Zimb*, occupy some valuable and attractive pages; and had these passages now appeared for the first time, we should, without hesitation, have transcribed them at length.

The concluding, or *Apterous* section, comprizes *Lepisma, Podura, Termes, Pediculus, Pulex, Acarus, Hydrachna, Phalangium, Aranea, Scorpio, Cancer, Monoculus, Oniscus, Scolopendra,* and *Julus.* Here, the figuring article is a long but interesting extract from Mr. Smeathman's history of the Termites. In the selection of his quotations, Dr. Shaw, on this as on former occasions, manifests both taste and judgment: but we fear that he has been less anxious than heretofore to confirm his claims to the merit of an original writer, or to that of a critical expounder and corrector of existing arrangements. Yet we cherish the well-grounded hope that, in the farther prosecution of his undertaking, he will resume his habits of patient investigation, and present us with a more complete and more elaborate analysis of the subjects which wait his discussion.—We have only to add, that the plates and typography of the present volume are executed in the same superior style as in those which have preceded it.

ART. IV. *A brief Restrospect of the Eighteenth Century.* Part the First; containing a Sketch of the Revolutions and Improvements in Science, Arts, and Literature, during that Period. By Samuel Miller, A.M. One of the Ministers of the United Presbyterian Churches in the City of New York, Member of the American Philosophical Society, and Corresponding Member of the Historical Society of Massachusetts. 3 Vols. 8vo. Printed at New York. and re-printed for Johnson in London, Price one Guinea, in Boards.

A HISTORY of literature, science, and the arts, is a more pleasing and instructive theme of contemplation than those registers of the follies and crimes of man which have never ceased to deform the annals of the world; and a review of the progress of mind, during the most recent and splendid period of its improvement, is a task not unworthy of the most approved talents and of the most exalted genius. The reverend author of these volumes, however, arrogates to himself no such lofty pretensions, but very candidly acknowleges the comparatively limited range of his reading, his want of access to large libraries, and his ignorance of most of the languages of the continent of Europe. These, we must confess, are very serious disqualifications in one who should attempt an enlarged and liberal retrospect of the literature and philosophy of the eighteenth century: but it is not every writer who would have the ingenuousness to avow them; and Mr. Miller, with a degree of modesty and good sense which cannot be too much commended, limits his exertions to the circumscribed sphere of his opportunities and acquirements. As he aims only at rapid sketches, he is, for the most part, contented m state the principal discoveries, inventions, and improv which distinguish the important age to which his work and to mention the names of those individuals to wh world is indebted for them. Such an outline, if draw ability and fairness, may better suit the purposes of reading than a more detailed and learned analysis, w may assist the philosophic scholar in preparing more am satisfactory records. The author has at least the merit gesting and of partly executing an important design, a honour of inviting the literati of Europe, who possess adv that have been denied to him, to follow and to excel same career.

Mr. M. thus relates the origin of this publication:

'On the 1st day of January, in the year 1801, the author being in the course of his pastoral duty, to deliver a sermon, ins choosing the topics of address most usual at the commencem *new year*, it occurred to him as more proper, in entering on *century*, to attempt a review of the preceding age, and to dedu the prominent features of that period such moral and religious re as might be suited to the occasion. A discourse, formed plan, was accordingly delivered. Some who heard it were to express a wish that it might be published. After de ing to comply with this wish, it was at first intended to pub original discourse, with some amplification; to add a large notes for the illustration of its several parts; and to comprise th in a single volume. Proposals were issued for the publication form, and a number of subscribers gave their names for couragement.

'Little progress had been made in preparing the work, plan, for the press, before the objections to such a mode of ar the materials appeared so many and cogent, that it was at thought best to lay aside the form of a sermon and to adopt a pl would admit of more minuteness of detail, and of greater in the choice and exhibition of facts. This alteration in the st of the work led to an extension of its limits: materials in accumulated; and that portion which was originally intende comprised in a third or fourth part of a single volume gr swelled into two volumes *.'

This first Part consists of twenty-six chapters, respectively treat of Mechanical Philosophy, Chemica losophy, Natural History, Medicine, (which occupi chapters), Geography, Mathematics, Navigation, A ture, Mechanic Arts, Fine Arts, Physiognomy, sophy of the Human Mind, Classic Literature, O Literature, Modern Languages, Philosophy of Lan History, Biography, Romances and Novels, Poetry, L Journals, Political Journals, Literary and Scientific A

'* The original edition is in two volumes.'

tions, Encyclopædias and Scientific Dictionaries, Education, and Nations lately become Literary. A more connected arrangement of his materials would probably occur to an acute inquirer; and we can perceive no good reason for placing the mechanic arts at such a distance from mechanic philosophy, nor for anticipating the general division of Politics by giving an account of Political Journals. The tabular view of the departments of knowlege, prefixed to the French *Encyclopédie*, might have furnished the author with a more philosophical disposition of his general and particular titles.

Of French, German, and Italian writers, the notices are scanty and meagre: but this deficiency seems to originate in want of access to the sources of information, rather than in any undue partiality to British and American names. It would, indeed, be unjustifiable to insinuate unfair prepossesion or bias on the part of a strenuous advocate for Christianity, who can thus distinguish between faith and intellectual talents:

> 'Should any reader be offended by the language of panegyric, which is frequently bestowed on the intellectual and scientific endowments of some distinguished abettors of heresy or of infidelity, he is entreated to remember that justice is due to all men. A man who is a bad Christian may be a very excellent mathematician, astronomer, or chemist; and one who denies or blasphemes the Saviour, may write profoundly and instructively on some branches of science highly interesting to mankind. It is proper to commiserate the mistakes of such persons, to abhor their blasphemy, and to warn men against their fatal delusions; but it is surely difficult to see either the justice or utility of withholding from them that praise of genius or of learning to which they are fairly entitled.'

Mr. Miller's regard, however, for every thing connected with the Scriptures, sometimes warps his estimate of comparative merit; as when he dwells with complacency on the writings of Hutchinson and his followers, though he terms their opinions wild and fanciful; and when he appeals to the Mosaic cosmogony as containing the true principles of geological knowledge. If, in other instances, more attention is bestowed on the state of science and literature in North America than strictly suits its proportion of notice in such a very general survey, the European reader will be disposed to pardon the minuteness of the information on account of its novelty and authenticity.

After having distinctly enumerated the five Medical Schools in the United States, Mr. M. thus concludes his review of medicine during the eighteenth century:

> 'The happy influence of these institutions has been much aided by the formation of *Medical Societies* in almost every state, which have come into being within the last forty years. The effect of such establishments in exciting a thirst for the acquisition of knowledge;

in producing a spirit of generous emulation; in cultivating
for observation and inquiry; and in combining the efforts
skill of physicians in every part of our country, must be ob
every attentive mind. Many of the *Inaugural Theses*, defen
published by the students in the American medical schools, w
considered as honourable specimens of talents and learning
most renowned universities of Europe.

'Within the last fifteen years of the century under review
cal publications have greatly multiplied in the United States
of which do equal honour to their authors and their country.
these the numerous and valuable works of Dr. Rush hold
place; and to no individual are we more indebted for pro
both by precept and example, that laudable and enlightened
medical improvements, which has been so happily increasin
number of years past, among American physicians. In a c
of our medical writers, also, Drs. Maclurg, Mitchill, Barto
say, Caldwell, Currie, and several others, would be entitled t
cular notice, did not the limits of the present sketch forbid
tempt to do justice to their respective merits.

'In the year 1797 a periodical publication, under the titl
Medical Repository, was commenced by Drs. Mitchill, Mill
Smith, which, from the peculiar circumstances of the count
be considered as an important event, in noting the successi
of medical improvement in the United States. In the pr
death of the last-named gentleman, who bade fair to attain
honourable eminence in his profession, this work sustained
loss. It is still, however, prosecuted with undiminished e
and success; and furnishes at once very reputable specimen
learning, talents, and zeal, of many American physicians
highly useful vehicle for conveying to the public a knowl
every improvement in the science of medicine.'

Many interesting particulars, connected with the
literature on the other side of the Atlantic, will also b
in the third section of the twenty-sixth chapter. It i
ever, admitted 'that what is called a *liberal education*
United States is, in common, less accurate and comple
erudition of their native citizens, with some exceptio
extensive and profound; and the works published by A
authors, in general, less learned, instructive, and elega
are found in Great Britain, and some of the more enli
nations on the eastern continent.' This inferiority is
to defective plans and means of instruction, to want of
want of encouragement for learning, and want of book

'Such are some of the causes which have hitherto imp
progress of American literature. Their influence, however,
ally declining, and the literary prospects of that country ar
ening every day. Letters and science are growing more i
in the public estimation. The number of learned men is b
rapidly greater. The plans and means of instruction in their s

of learning, though by no means improving in all respects, are, in some, receiving constant melioration. The emulation of founding and sustaining a national character in science and learning begins to be more generally felt, and, from time to time, will doubtless be augmented. A larger proportion of the growing wealth of their country will hereafter be devoted to the improvements of knowledge, and especially to the furtherance of all the means by which scientific discoveries are brought within popular reach, and rendered subservient to practical utility. American publications are every day growing more numerous, and rising in respectability of character. Public and private libraries are becoming more numerous and extensive. The taste in composition among their writers is making very sensible progress in correctness and refinement. American authors of merit meet with more liberal encouragement; and when the time shall arrive that they can give to their votaries of literature the same leisure and the same stimulants to exertion with which they are favoured in Europe, it may be confidently predicted, that letters will flourish as much in America as in any part of the world; and that they will be able to make some return to their transatlantic brethren, for the rich stores of useful knowledge which they have been pouring upon them for nearly two centuries.’

It would be an easy but invidious task to note many omissions in the several divisions of this retrospect, or to call for more elevated language, and for greater depth and acuteness of remark. Where much has been effected in a very wide and diversified range, it is unreasonable to expect perfection.

The History of the Moral World, and of Political Principles and Establishments, remains to be treated in the second and third parts of the plan: but the author is chiefly solicitous to discuss the fourth and last division, which relates to the Literature, Science, and Revolutions of the Christian Church during the last century.

Art. V. *Memoirs of the Medical Society of London*, Vol. VI. 8vo. pp. 623. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

ALTHOUGH this volume furnishes us with papers of unequal degrees of merit, it must on the whole be considered as a valuable addition to our stock of medical knowlege. We shall at least enumerate the subjects of all the communications, and shall state more particularly the result of those which are distinguished by their novelty or importance.

The first article is by Dr. Falconer of Bath, and is intitled *Sketch of the Similarity of Ancient to Modern Opinions, and Practice concerning the Morbus Cardiacus.* This similarity is fully proved by numerous quotations from the antients, compared with the opinions of the most approved modern authors. It appears that the old practice was discontinued in consequence of it counteracting an hypothesis that was altogether unfounded, respecting the proximate cause of the disease; and that, as experience gradually gained the ascendency over theory, the original treatment was revived, and is now generally adpoted.

We have next a case of *Angina Pectoris*, by Dr. Black of Newry. On dissection, the coronary arteries were found completely ossified through their whole course.—The 3d article contains a case of *Hydrocephalus Internus*, by Mr. Edmund Pitts Gapper, Surgeon at Ewell, cured by profuse salivation.—Dr. Thomas, of St. Kitt's, next gives an account of a *Child who, when about 5 months old, became of a blue color*, resembling that which is observed in those instances in which the respiratory organs are defective: the color gradually disappeared. We cannot agree with the author in supposing that it depended on a bilious fever which attacked the mother while she was suckling the child.

Dr. Lettsom furnishes a history of *an obstinate hepatic disease*, which, after having resisted a great variety of remedies, was removed by the occurrence of a smart feverish attack.—In the 6th article, Dr. Lee, of Jamaica, relates the *case of a Negro, who, after an operation for strangulated Hernia, was left with an artificial anus in the groin.* He remained in this state for about 12 months, when an inflammation came on in the part, the openin was closed, and the fæces were again carried off by the natura canal.—In articles 7 and 8, Mr. Smith, of Philadelphia, present an *account of the cure of Croup by emetics*; and of *the remova of Tetanus*, succeeding to a wound in the tibia, by repr ducing a discharge from the part by caustics.—In the 10 article, Dr. Marshall adduces a fact in support of the suppose *origin of Cow-pox from the grease of the horse.*

A very ingenious dissertation next occurs on *the Yaws*, Dr. Adams; being one of the papers which obtained the S ciety's medal. The symptoms that occurred in a case whi fell under the author's notice, while at Madeira, are minute detailed, and the effect of remedies on them is correctly r lated. The quantity of mercury given in this case was so sma that it cannot be supposed to have any influence on the cu Dr. Adams enters into a disquisition on the leprosy with whi the Jews were affected during their abode in the wilderness: and from the nature of the symptoms, he concludes that must have been the yaws.

In the 11th paper, we have an account of *an extra uteri Fœtus*, by Dr. Fothergill of Bath. The symptoms were at fi supposed to proceed from dropsy in the ovarium, although t real nature of the case was ascertained for some time befo the period of pregnancy was accomplished. It ended in the death of the mother, which event was preceded by a discharge of putrid matter from the intestinal canal; and on dissection, the skeleton of a dead child was found behind the uterus. Dr. F. concludes with some judicious observations in favour of the long controverted point, how far it may be proper, in such instances, to have recourse to the Cæsarean operation.

Mr. Dyson gives a case of *inverted Uterus after delivery;* which was safely returned into its natural state, and at a subsequent period again performed its usual functions.—Mr. Carden, of Worcester, rather vaguely relates the history of *a fatty Tumour in the Thorax*, together with a large cyst, containing serum and coagulated blood, which had produced pectoral complaints that terminated in dropsy.—The 14th article is by Mr. Field; detailing a case in which, after the patient had experienced great bodily hardship, together with a scanty supply of food, the health gradually declined, and death was produced, as the symptoms seemed to indicate, from a disease in the stomach. On dissection, however, the malady was ascertained to be in the ileum, 18 inches of which were found in a cancerous state.—We have next an account of *a mal-conformation of the Heart*, in consequence of which the blood could not become properly arterialized, and that blue color of the skin ensued, which is known to exist under similar circumstances. —Mr. Carn, of Bath, relates an instance in which *the Peroneal Artery was wounded* in a part that lies so deeply between the bones of the leg, that it could not be taken up until a portion of the fibula had been removed; amputation, the usual resource on such occasions, was thus rendered unnecessary, and the limb was restored to its former sound and healthy state.

The 17th article, communicated by Dr. Marcet, is of considerable importance. It contains a recommendation of *the white Oxyd of Bismuth for chronic pains of the Stomach.* Dr. Odier, of Geneva, has for some time employed this mineral with success, but we believe that it had never been before used in this country. The paper relates some cases in which its good effects seem very apparent; and we think that it promises to be a valuable addition to the materia medica.

We now arrive at what we consider as the most valuable communication in the whole volume, *an Essay on the Use of the Bath Waters in Ischias*, by Dr. Falconer. The Docter begins by giving a full account of the symptoms of this disease, through all the stages of their progress, from their first commencement, when they are so slight and transient as to be little noticed, until their termination in an abscess of the hip joint; one of the most painful affections to which the human frame is incident,

cident, and in which the patient is either carried off by hectic, or, if he survive, is left with his limb shortened, and almost useless. The paper tends strongly to corroborate the idea that has been long entertained respecting the good effects of the Bath waters in this complaint; which are the more useful the earlier they are employed, and, after the suppurative stage has commenced, are no longer admissible. Leeches and blisters are sometimes found necessary to be employed together with the water; and occasionally opium and Dover's powders are beneficial adjuncts.—Dr. Falconer gives, in the form of a table, the result of all the cases which have been treated in the Bath Infirmary during a space of 16 years. The whole number, deducting those that were not deemed fair subjects for a trial, is 415; 103 of these were entirely cured, 168 received considerable benefit, 111 were materially relieved, and 33 only were dismissed without gaining any advantage.—For this paper, Dr. Falconer received a silver medal from the Society.

Dr. Smith, of New Hampshire, has contributed some remarks on *the Position of Patients during Lithotomy.* He objects to the present plan of binding down the hands to the ancles; by which posture the abdomen must be compressed, and the intestines forced towards the bladder, and thus rendered more liable to be injured.—In the 20th memoir, Dr. Broadbelt of Jamaica relates a case of *great Enlargement of the Scrotum*, which took place in a negroe, apparently in consequence of a stricture of the urethra.—On the next paper, by Dr. Bostock, of Liverpool, the Society bestowed their honorary medal. It contains an account of *two cases of Diabetes.* After an accurate enumeration of the symptoms, the author relates the result of a number of experiments which he performed on the diabetic extract, which he appears to have examined with much care: but he does not enter into any detail of the remedies employed.

Nearly all the remainder of the volume, consisting of more than 300 pages, is occupied with remarks on the *Influenza* which was so prevalent in the spring of 1803. The Society issued to their correspondents a set of queries, to which they received answers from 58 medical gentlemen in different parts of Great Britain and Ireland; and these communications are all published, without alteration: forming a valuable but confused mass of information, which we regret that the Society did not take the trouble of analyzing and arranging. One of the most characteristic symptoms of the disease was debility, which came on from the commencement of the attack, and was frequently the first circumstance that arrested the attention of the patient. It has been a subject of discussion how far the disease was contagious; for the most part, the correspondents of the Society seem to consider it as not of this nature, but some very respectable practitioners adopt the contrary opinion, and support it by plausible arguments.

Art VI. *A Clinical History of Diseases, Part First*, being, 1. A Clinical History of the Acute Rheumatism. 2. A Clinical History of the Nodosity of the Joints. By John Haygarth, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 168. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

It is generally admitted that in no science is it more difficult to convey information by means of books, than in practical medicine. In some degree, this difficulty depends on the nature of the science, but a part of it must certainly be attributed to the mode which has been usually pursued by those who have attempted to instruct mankind on this subject. Most of the older authors, and many of the moderns, whose works are in the highest estimation, have been writers of systems; they have undertaken to treat of the whole circle of diseases on a regular plan; and this plan has always involved an hypothesis, which has perverted their description of the phænomena of disease, and influenced their method of cure. Another mode has, of late years, been more in fashion; viz. that of publishing single cases. At first view, this might be considered as much less exceptionable; it professes to be the simple relation of facts, and, as such, must necessarily have its due weight in the formation of opinion and the advancement of knowlege: but, unfortunately, the publication of cases has not been productive of all the advantage that might be expected from it. This failure is owing to several circumstances; perhaps the most important of which, and the only one that we shall now specify, is the fondness which every one naturally possesses for presenting something extraordinary to the world. In consequence of such a feeling, practitioners are induced not to give an account of their experience in diseases that are of frequent occurrence, or of great fatality, but of such as are uncommon; and to the same cause we may attribute an irresistible propensity, even among men of veracity, of magnifying the importance of these rare occurrences, and of placing every thing in that point of view which may excite surprise rather than impart information. The work now before us is executed on a plan in which the advantages of both the former modes are in a considerable degree combined, while their disadvantages are equally avoided. We have in it the benefit which is to be derived from generalization, united to the minuteness which is found in the relation of single cases.

Dr. Haygarth informs us in his preface, that since the year 1767, he has 'constantly recorded, in the patient's chamber, a full and accurate account of every important symptom, the remedies which were employed, and, when an opportunity offered, the effects which they produced.' After an extensive range of practice, for nearly 40 years, he has resolved to lay the result of his observations before the public; and the method which he has adopted is to analyze all his records concerning each particular disease, and to deduce from them a series of facts respecting it. Perhaps no medical writer ever proceeded on a basis of observation at once so accurate and so extensive.—The present volume contains the account of two diseases, acute rheumatism, and the nodosity of the joints; and we shall briefly notice some of the positions which Dr. H. has established on these subjects.

Out of 10,549 cases, in the higher and middle ranks of society, of which Dr. Haygarth has kept records, 470 are rheumatism, and of these 170 were attended with fever, exhibiting that form of the disease which is called *acute.* The common cause of the complaint appears to be cold, particularly when conjoined with moisture; more males are attacked than females, probably because they are more exposed to the exciting cause; and for the same reason, it is more frequent in winter and spring, than in summer and autumn. All ages, from 5 to above 60, are subject to it: but it occurs more generally between 15 and 20. The latent period, i. e. the period between the application of the cause and the appearance of the symptoms, is shorter than is commonly imagined, and sometimes there was no perceptible interval. Dr. Haygarth has not been able to perceive that any other disease precedes the acute rheumatism, or is united with it, so constantly as to imply any connection between them. The pulse is commonly above 100, and the blood when drawn exhibits a strong inflammatory crust.

With respect to the method of cure, the strict antiphlogistic plan is the one which is commonly adopted: but, as the author observes, although the disease is seldom or never fatal, it is under this treatment exceedingly protracted, and sometimes scarcely ever entirely removed. In an early period of Dr. Haygarth's professional life, he received from the late Dr. Fothergill the idea of employing bark as a remedy in acute rheumatism; and on trial he found it so beneficial that he has ever since employed it, with the greatest success. The manner in which he administers the bark we shall state in his own words:

'After the stomach and bowels have been sufficiently cleansed by Antimony, I have, for many years, begun to order the powder of the Peruvian Bark in doses of gr. v. x. or xv. every 2, 3, or 4 hours; and if this quantity has a salutary effect, it was gradually increased to gr. xx. xxx. or xl. with sedulous attention never to add more than what perfectly agrees. It has generally been taken in milk, mint water, or the decoction of Bark.'

He concludes by remarking;

'Except Mercury in the Syphilis, there are few or perhaps no examples where a remedy can produce such speedy relief and perfect recovery in so formidable a disease. For many years I have been thoroughly convinced that the Peruvian Bark has a much more powerful effect in the Rheumatick than any other Fever: and that it does not even cure an ague so certainly and so quickly.'

Twelve of the cases which are classed under the head of rheumatism having proved fatal, the particulars of them are related at full length; partly for the purpose of shewing that the bark was not in any way accessory to the event, and likewise that death was to be attributed to some other disease, superadded to the rheumatic affection. We have next a set of tables, in which all the phænomena of the 170 cases are accurately classed in parallel columns; so that we are able immediately to trace the history of each case by carrying the eye in one direction, or to compare the different cases with each other by moving down any one column. We highly approve this arrangement; and we cannot but regret that the author intends to discontinue it in his subsequent publications.

The nodosity of the joints, the account of which is included in the remainder of the volume, has generally been confounded with rheumatism, though, as it appears, it is clearly distinguishable from it. Thirty-four cases of it have fallen under Dr. Haygarth's observation; they were almost all females; the affection supervened about the middle period of life; and the fingers were the parts commonly affected. The seat of the disease is in the ends of the bones, and the periosteum, capsules, or ligaments of the joints; these parts gradually increase, so that the joints become distorted and useless; and sometimes they even appear to be dislocated. This complaint differs from gout, in the circumstances that the latter disease is attended with inflammation and redness of the skin and of the soft parts, and comes on in paroxysms; and it differs from rheumatism in the nature of the swellings, which are harder, more durable, and less painful. The best remedies for the nodosities of the joints appear to be the warm bath, a stream of warm water, and leeches applied to the affected part. We doubt not that these remarks of Dr. Haygarth will excite the attention of practitioners to this distressing and hitherto neglected complaint; which, we apprehend, will be found a more frequent occurrence than it is generally supposed.

Art. VII. *The Stranger in Ireland;* or a Tour in the Southern and Western Parts of that Country in the Year 1805. By John Carr, Esq., Author of *a Northern Summer, or Travels round the Baltic*[*], *the Stranger in France*[†], &c. 4to. pp. 530. and 17 Plates. 2l. 5s. Boards. R. Phillips.

Certain tourists may be considered as literary haberdashers, or dealers in small wares; and in serving their customers, they have often the pert flippancy of haberdashers' shopmen or apprentices. They collect shreds and remnants of knowlege, which they puff off with a smirk or a smile of the most perfect complacency; and if they obtain encouragement, they will try to *sport* a commodity which they mistake for wit. What could have tempted Sir John Carr[‡] to enlist into this class of book-making ramblers? Did he conceive that any tissue would serve for a tour in Ireland, and that from him any thing would be acceptable? Sterne was vain enough to suppose that his readers would tolerate whatever flowed from his pen; and perhaps Sir John was of opinion that, if he tried sometimes to be pompous and at other times to be facetious, he should ingratiate himself with the multitude and even impose on the critic. He has artfully managed to flatter the Irish, by taking every opportunity of detecting *bulls* which are *not Irish* for the sake of shewing that the manufactory of them does not belong exlusively to the sons of Hibernia; and he marks also the striking phraseology of the low Irish, which indeed is not exceeding the province of a *Stranger in Ireland:* but we cannot tolerate his stale *Joes*, and his incessant *à propos de botte.* He contrives, when anecdotes fail him, to advert to some trivial circumstance which happily reminds him of something that was said or done in another place, and that was worth relating; and, as a good thing cannot be told too often, he obligingly communicates it to his reader. To expand his narrative, also, he collects hear-say tales, right hand and left, without perplexing himself with the consideration of their probability or improbability.

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[*] See M.Rev. Vol. xlviii. N. S. p. 133.

[†] Ibid. Vol. xli. p. 393.

[‡] The contents of this volume seem to have been so gratifying to the Irish nation, and to the Vice-Roy, that the latter has been induced to bestow the honour of knighthood on its author.

In the writer's serious accounts and remarks, however, we often find much to applaud; and though he be generally desultory, and frequently incorrect, his pen is guided by humanity, and by a desire of promoting the improvement of the country which he attempts to describe. Impressed with the conviction that the people of Ireland have laboured under the foulest misrepresentations and aspersions, he laudably exerts himself to render them justice; and he notices the hardships by which they are oppressed, and the defective policy of government, not for the purpose of irritating their feelings, but in order to advance the important object of their amelioration. If our gravity was disturbed by his recollections of stale jokes and anecdotes, we were made amends by his judicious concluding general remarks; some of which, in the course of this article, we shall transcribe.

North Wales having been the vestibule to Ireland on this occasion, the tourist first honours the land of Cambro-Britain with his remarks. The pencil indeed is not here employed, but he draws the landscape of the vale of Llangollen *in prose*, scattering the gayest colours from his pen. He also tells us an incredible anecdote of a man in the stage-coach; and he repeats another, which is said to have occurred at Paris, in which Mr. Bolton is made the victorious exhibitor, in a contest with a Frenchman for the superiority of British manufactures; though we apprehend that the story, whether a fact or a fiction, was in circulation long prior to Mr. Bolton's celebrated manufactures of Soho. Here likewise he met with a gentleman from Middlesex, who furnished him with the *first bull*; a commodity which, he assures us at the end of the volume, he never once discovered in Ireland, and which he believes is as scarce there as murders, though in our newspapers that island is celebrated for both. So desirous is he of exonerating the Irish from the imputation of bull-making, or at least of bringing other nations, both antient and modern, to participate with them in a propensity to blundering, that he attempts, on the following line,

" *Moriamur, et in media arma ruamus,*"

to convict Virgil of having made *a bull:* but we see none: a resolution is proposed, and then the mode of carrying that resolution into effect.

Ireland is entered by the Bay of Dublin; and to compensate for the absence of *a bull*, the author obliges us with a miracle, for he tells us that the vessel ' passed *through* two great sandbanks.'—The scene is thus described:

' As we entered the bay of Dublin, a brilliant sun, and almost cloudless sky, unfolded one of the finest land and sea prospects I ever beheld. "The mountains shewed their grey heads, the blue face o Ocean smiled, the white wave was seen tumbling round the distan rock." On the right was the rugged hill of Howth, with its rocky bays, wanting only a volcano to afford to the surrounding scenery th strongest resemblance, as I was well informed, to the beautiful bay of Naples; whilst, nearer to the eye, at the extremity of a white lin of masonry just fringing the sea, the light-house presented its alabaster front. On our left were the town of Dalkey, with its romantic rocks, mutilated castles, martello towers, with their gay little streamers, elegant villas, and the picturesque town of Dunleary; whilst behind was seen a line of parks and plantations, above which the mountains of Wicklow ascended with the greatest majesty. Whilst I stood enraptured with the richness of the scenery, a good humoured Irish sailor came up to me, and, with a smile of delight, said, "By Jasus, your honour! your're right there; it is God's own country;" nodding at the same time at me.'—

'For want of towers and spires the capital excites but little impression of its magnitude and consequence at a distance. The harbour has been very much protected, on the south side of the river, by a prodigious mole or stone-wall, called the South Wall, formed of large blocks of mountain granite braced with iron, and strongly cemented. This wonderful monument of human ingenuity and enterprize, which may rank with some of the finest remains of Roman magnificence, extends nearly three miles into the bay from Ringsend. From the King's Watch-house it runs to the Block-house, which i distant seven thousand nine hundred and thirty-eight feet; and from thence to the Light house, at the extremity of the wall, nine thousand eight hundred and sixteen feet It rises about five feet above high water, is nearly forty feet broad as far as the Block-house, and from thence to the Light-house twenty-eight feet broad, narrowing from a base of about thirty-two feet broad. This stupendous work wa begun in 1748, and completed in seven years. As we turned the Light-house, I was much gratified by its appearance: it is a round tower of white hewn granite of three stories high, gradually tapering to the summit, on which is raised an octagonal lantern of eight windows, the powerful light of which is encreased by *reflecting lenses.* A stone staircase, with an iron ballustrade, winds round the building to the second story, where an iron gallery surrounds the whole. It was commenced on the first of June 1762, in consequence of a statute of Queen Anne, called the Ballast Act. By depositing huge rocks in a vast caissoon which was sunk in the sea, the ingenious architect, Mr. Smyth, has been able to raise this beautiful structure, and to give it the consistency of rock, in a situation peculiarly exposed to the raging elements. As we sailed in smooth water on the inner side of the Mole, it strongly reminded me of passing by the wonderful embankments which I had seen on the sides of the Neva. Before I land, let me recommend the Union Packet as infinitely the swiftest sailing vessel in the service *. Our vessel was able to lie along side of the Pidgeon house, where we quitted that consumma-

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* Has the author sailed in all of them? *Rev.*

a of human misery, *a cabin after a short voyage*; and, upon
ding, after our luggage had again been submitted to search, and
an imposition of three shillings in the shape of a custom-house fee,
re entered a long coach, drawn by four wretched horses, which at-
ends upon the packets, and proceeded towards the capital, distant
about three miles.'

In this extract, for *reflecting lenses*, the tourist should have written *magnifying lenses*: a lens is a dioptric, and not a catoptric glass.

A visit to the Museum induces the author to display his *knowlege* and his amiability. We are informed that 'the Romans first constructed their boats from the shell of the nautilus, which is a *siphon throughout*;' (quere, were the Roman boats siphons throughout?) and when he approaches Venus's shell, he utters this apostrophe, which must electrify all the Ladies of the United Kingdom, from Devonshire to the *Ultima Thule*: 'If I pass over Venus's cockle, without paying my homage to the beautiful shell, may I never love or be loved!' Yet, not sure that this one exclamation would be sufficient to enthrone him in the good opinion of the ladies, he professes himself in the next page ready to 'swear on the altar of Cupid.' What a courteous knight!

When the author visits the cathedral of St. Patrick's, Dean Swift becomes of course the prominent object. His epitaph is copied; and the melancholy reverse of his brilliant genius is an unavoidable source of reflection with a man of letters: but Sir John Carr should have known that the line in which his fate is so feelingly described,

> "And Swift expires a driv'ller and a show,"

occurs not in Pope's works, but in Johnson's Vanity of Human Wishes.

We are apprehensive that the tourist was sometimes too inattentive to the accuracy of his information; for in his visit to the town of Black Rock, four miles from Dublin, he mentions land in its neighbourhood, so 'very rich and valuable as to let from ten to *twenty-five* pounds per acre.' Black Rock is compared to Clapham Common: but we question whether land at Clapham Common lets for half this price.

In treating of Dublin, the author makes many just observations on the deplorable state of the Irish coinage, the evils resulting from it, the circulation of paper-money, and the course of exchange between Ireland and this country; and to the instances already before the public, of the mischief occasioned to trade by the want of silver coin, he adds several which occurred within his own knowlege.—His discussion of this subject is too long for quotation.

One of Sir John's *anecdotes* occurs in mentioning a peculiarity in the names of places in Ireland, which may perhaps obtain a corner in a new edition of our jest books:—*ex. gr.*

'We passed through Dundrum, a very pretty village about three miles and a half from Dublin. Near the four mile stone is Moreen, a very picturesque situation; it is remarkable for a desperate battle which was fought some centuries since by two neighbouring families, who, having satiated their revenge, very piously erected a church in the valley where the battle was fought; but whether in expiation of their infuriated rage, or to perpetuate the history of it, antient story does not tell. Not far from Moreen, is the castle and church of Kilgobbin. The frequent recurrence of names of places beginning with *kill*, is not a little alarming to a stranger in Ireland, more especially if he be under the influence of those stupid prejudices which have been excited against that country. I have just enumerated, in my memory, *no less* (not fewer) than forty nine of those *kill* places. The name produced the following ridiculous mistake: when some of our militia regiments were in Ireland during the rebellion, a soldier, a native of Devonshire, who was stationed at an out-post, stopped a countryman, and demanded who he was, *whence he came from*, and whither he was going: The fellow replied: "And my name, my dear honey, is Tullyhog; and, dy'e see, I am just been to *Killmanny*, and am going to *Killmore*." Upon which the sentinel immediately seized him, expecting to receive a high reward for having apprehended a most sanguinary rebel, by confession just come from murder, and going to a fresh banquet of blood.'

The chapter which includes Arklow notices the battle fought there during the late rebellion, and the subsequent simplicity of an Irish peasant; to which the author adds an instance of his own simplicity, by relating, as an event of yesterday, a story long since invented to ridicule a country clown:

'A whimsical circumstance happened here during the rebellion. A soldier, who was on guard, got into conversation with a raw countryman, and taking advantage of his simplicity, agreed with him for the sale of his sentry-box: the simple clown paid the amount of the purchase, and came the next morning with his car and horse for it. "What are you doing there?" said a fresh sentinel. "And, by Jasus, I'm come to remove this *little bit of shelter*, and plaze you," said the boor. The same spirit of simplicity is displayed in the following instance, which occurred not long since: A letter was receive at the General Post-office, London, directed, "To my son i London?" the next morning a gawky thumped at the Post-office window, and said, "has my mother sent me a letter?" of course th letter received was immediately delivered to him.'

In like manner, the farmer's reply to the man who reprove him for tying his plough to the horses' tails, "they are used it," reminds this facetious gentleman of a similar answer fro a rat-catcher respecting the sowing up of the mouths of his ferrets; and we are surprized that he had not also retailed the same remark of the *poissarde* when skinning eels.

On the road to Wicklow, the traveller passes some mountains containing copper ore; and in these were observed 'several hollow squares, like baths, partly filled with divisions, in which plates of iron were deposited; the *vitriolic* particles of which are attracted by a stream strongly impregnated with *vitriolic* water which flows into them, and leaves a sediment of copper.' The fact is correct: but the operation is not performed by vitriolic particles being attracted by vitriolic water. The elective attraction, which takes place by placing iron in copper streams, has often been explained.

As it would be impossible for us regularly to attend this rambler to the numerous places included in his route, or to notice the multitude of objects on which he descants, we shall deem it sufficient to specify that, besides the capital, he visited the considerable towns of Limerick and Cork; that he enjoyed the scenery of the Dargle and of the Upper and Lower Lake of Killarney; that he describes the nature of the country and the state of society; and that with national institutions he sketches national manners.

From the visit to the lake of Killarney, we expected some gratification: but the writer dismisses his account of this beautiful spot in the following unsatisfactory manner:

'The morning after our return from Dunlow castle, we set off for the upper lake; it was still and serene, and the vapours hung upon the summits of the mountains in the most fantastic shapes. Below, every thing was clear and tranquil: I never before saw reflexion in the water so perfect: and the echoes, upon the bugle being blown, were remarkably distinct. We passed O'Donahue's prison, an insulated rock, which has been much fretted by the waves: tradition says that the prince of that name used to chain his rebellious subjects to it. I saw several rocks which had been so eaten through by the action of the air and water, that they presented the appearance of dissected vertebræ.

'In Mucruss lake there is a rock exactly resembling a horse in the act of drinking. As every island in these lakes has some traditionary history attached to it, and as there are no less [*not fewer*] than thirty four islands, I will spare my reader the labour of attending to them. We doubled the point of Ross Island, and, at a distance, saw the machines for working the copper-mines lately discovered there.

'Glenna, always the great object of the lakes, and whom I had never contemplated before so closely, notwithstanding his spoliation, rose with uncommon majesty before us: upon his rocky and indented shores, the finest arbutus, or strawberry trees, were in berry and blossom too; whilst its southern side presented a varied covering of the tops of oak, ash, pine, birch-trees, and alder; white-thorn, yew, and holly, growing wild, and blending their different greens wit luxuriance: here, a neat little cottage peeped upon us fron unexpected openings: there, the smoke, curling above the tre pointed to its concealment; whilst groupes of grazing cattle en the whole. From a solid detached rock, apparently without a we remarked a yew tree growing. In Russian Finland, I ren having seen several firs growing, without any vegetable mould, the tops of masses of granite; they were supported by long roots which clasped the rock, and which I was able to overtur ease.'

Respecting the city and trade of Cork, these particul stated:

'Cork exports more beef, tallow, hides, butter, fish, and provisions, than Belfast, Waterford, or Limerick; her other are linen cloth, pork, calves, lambs, rabbit-skins, wool for En linen, and wollen yarn and worsted. The slaughtering season mences in September, and continues to the latter end of Ja during which time it has been computed that no less [*not fewer* one hundred thousand head of black cattle have been killed and c

'The provision-trade has not been carried on for these las or four years with the same spirit, and to the same extent, merly, owing in a great measure to the business having becom general in the other sea-ports of Ireland than before: yet a larger quantity of provision was made up in Cork last seaso the year preceding; but if it be considered that the greater was intended for the use of government, and that the price o has been much too high in proportion to the prices allowed vernment for the manufactured provisions, it may easily be i that the trade could not be very productive to those concerned

'The Union has not as yet produced any visible effects up trade of Cork; but, from the best information I could procur expected that in time that great political measure will be fo by salutary consequences to Cork.

'The price of land in the neighbourhood of this city varie three pounds to ten pounds per acre of English statute measur

'Upon the banks of the river, and towards the harbour's on account of the convenience for bathing, the land, withou rich, is very high in value. Within these last ten years, re tripled: the price of labour in this part of Ireland has ad greatly within these few years; but the comforts of the lower have not "grown with its growth," in consequence of the pr the necessaries of life keeping equal pace with the advance of which in these parts are now from sixteenpence or eighteenpe day.

'Tillage in the immediate neighbourhood of Cork, and southern parts of the country, has been latterly much promo consequence of the breweries and distilleries consuming such mense quantity of barley and oats, whilst the large quantity o and flour used in the market, both for home consumption and has greatly excited the farmers to the cultivation of the former

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orous exaction of the hearth-money tax has been much complained amongst the poor, but as the legislature is about to annul it, all rther comment would be unnecessary.

'The relative proportion of catholics to protestants, in this and in l the cities of Munster, is full four to one; in the interior of the ountry it is ten to one; almost all the common people are of the first escription, as well as the respectable merchants of the city.

'Under the term protestants are comprehended all separatists from he catholic communion: the established church in this part of Ireland has very few followers; the methodists, on the contrary, are rapidly increasing.

'It is with uncommon satisfaction that I am enabled to state, from indubitable authority, that the catholic clergy in this city, and throughout the province, are by their public and private virtue and deportment, eminently entitled to the thanks and admiration of the government. In the discharge of their high vocation, they have laboured to remove the prejudices of the poor and unenlightened catholic, have placed his religious happiness on the side of his social duties, and united his faith to the repose of his country. Since the unfortunate era of 1798, the tranquillity of Cork has been remarkable.

'Although catholic landholders in this country are not very numerous at present, as the character of the city is purely commercial, no doubt the catholic landed interest will be much extended, by catholics investing their fortunes, in future, in the purchase of land.'

We shall now extract the author's highly-coloured summary of the Irish character:

'With few materials for ingenuity to work with, the peasantry of Ireland are most ingenious, and with adequate inducements laboriously indefatigable: they possess, in general, personal beauty and vigour of frame; they abound with wit and sensibility, although all the avenues to useful knowledge are closed against them; they are capable of forgiving injuries, and are generous even to their oppressors; they are sensible of superior merit, and submissive to it: they display natural urbanity in rags and penury, are cordially hospitable, ardent for information, social in their habits, kind in their disposition, in gaiety of heart and genuine humour unrivalled, even in their superstition presenting an union of pleasantry and tenderness; they are warm and constant in their attachments; faithful and incorruptible in their engagements; innocent with the power of sensual enjoyment perpetually within their reach; observant of sexual modesty, though crowded in the narrow limits of a cabin; strangers to a crime which eddens the cheek of manhood with horror; tenacious of respect; cutely sensible of, and easily won by kindnesses. Such is the peasantry of Ireland: I appeal not to the affections or the humanity, ut to the justice of every one to whom chance may direct these ages, whether men so constituted present no character which a wise overnment can mould to the great purpose of augmenting the prosperity of the country, and the happiness of society. Well might

Lord Chesterfield, when Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, exclaim, "God has done every thing for this country, man nothing."

Having had sufficient evidence of the degraded condition of the low Irish, and witnessed with concern their propensity to whisky-drinking, with the encouragement which it receives from the inordinate sale of this liquid poison, the author offers, in his general remarks at the conclusion, some very useful hints on the subjects of Education, Priests, Absentees, Agents, Cabins, unlicensed Distilleries, Porter-breweries, Courts of Justice, Oaths, &c. adding the following reasons to enforce his observations:

'Heaven never committed to any government the care of a country upon which she has been more prodigally bountiful: for, independently of the genius of the people, Ireland throughout rests upon a bed of the richest manure: towards the sea she has sand, shells, and weeds; inland, she abounds with limestone gravel, limestone marl, and other natural manures: her rivers and surrounding seas are all propitious to commerce, and are open to all the quarters of the world. The Shannon, the Liffey, the Lee, the Suir, the Bann, the Boyne, the Blackwater, and other rivers, her creeks, her numerous, vast, and beautiful lakes abound with fish of various descriptions, and with little assistance from the hand of man, can be formed into canals, which might easily unite the centre with the extremities of the island: upon the seas which surround her, vessels from the most distant regions can approach her indented coasts in the most tempestuous weather with safety: within a circuit of seven hundred and fifty miles, it has been estimated that she possesses sixty-six secure harbours. The fertility of the country, with a slender exception, is uncommonly luxuriant; her climate is soft and salubrious, her bogs demonstrate her former consequence, and can be, and are rapidly reclaiming; an inexhaustible stratum of coal is ready to supply its turf; and her peasantry, without having tasted much of happiness and prosperity, possess all the essential qualities by which both are deserved, and can be enjoyed and promoted.

'Upon this country a new Aurora has shed her purple light. A jealous, angry, and mistaken policy is yielding to reason, gentleness, and toleration. Under the mild administration of a Hardwicke, Ireland felt new confidence, and the hope of better days; that confidence will be rewarded, and those hopes realized under the auspices of the present government, which has displayed at once its paternal care and its wisdom, by confiding the destinies of that country to a nobleman of the most expanded and liberal mind, of the highest rank, and the most splendid fortune, and who has devoted himself to a science and to a course of investigation essential to the prosperity of all countries, but peculiarly to that over which he presides; it would here be superfluous to name the present illustrious descendant of the house of Russell.'

This volume, like its predecessors, is embellished with *acqua tinta* engravings, and with a map of Killarney; which form an acceptable illustration of the letter-press, by giving views of country scenery and seats, towns, and public buildings.

Art. VIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1806. Part II. 4to. 17s. 6d. sewed. Nicol.

Papers on Chemistry *and* Natural History.

Account of a Discovery of Native Minium: in a Letter from James Smithson, *Esq. F.R.S. to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P.R.S.*—Mr. Smithson here announces the discovery of minium, or the red oxyd of lead, as a natural production; and which was found mixed with the carbonate of zinc. He supposes that it is formed from the decay of the sulphuret of lead, as he observed some crystals of this substance, which were externally covered with minium. It is not stated where the oxyd was found, but the paper is dated from Cassell.

Description of a rare Species of Worm Shells, discovered in an Island lying off the North-West Coast of the Island of Sumatra in the East Indies. By J. Griffiths, *Esq. Communicated by* Sir Joseph Banks.—In the year 1797, a considerable earthquake took place in the island of Sumatra; and during the agitation which ensued in the adjoining parts of the ocean, a bank of mud was laid bare, on which were discovered a number of shells, remarkable for their size and their peculiar conformation. They were tubular, and irregularly tapering; some of the largest of them were above 5 feet long; and the circumference at the base was 9 inches, and that of the smaller end 2½ inches. A more particular account of their organization, and of their relation to other marine animals, is given in the subsequent paper.

Observations on the Shell of the Sea Worm found on the Coast of Sumatra, proving it to belong to a Species of Teredo; with an Account of the Anatomy of the Teredo navalis. By E. Home, *Esq. F.R.S.*—The animal described in the preceding paper having fallen under the inspection of Mr. Home, he conjectured that it belonged to the genus *Teredo*; and in order to ascertain the truth of his opinion, he procured some living specimens of the *Teredo navalis*. He presents us with a minute and interesting description of the anatomy of this singular animal, but it would be scarcely intelligible without a reference to the plates.—He points out a peculiarity in its sanguiferous system. The heart admits only of a single circulation, as is the case with all the animals that breathe under water: but in the teredines,

the blood, after it has left the heart, is immediately dis
to the different parts of the body, and is afterward coll
the respiratory organs before it returns to the heart.
animal possesses no cavity for the reception of water, i
ratory organs are placed on its surface. No nervou
could be discovered: but the organization is in many
so perfect, that the existence of a brain and nerves see
bable; although, from the substance of which the a
composed, we are not able to distinguish the
matter.

A portion of the wood which these worms destroy
ways found in their stomach: but, from several circum
it is rendered probable that this substance does not co
to their nutrition; and that they are supported entirel
medium of the sea-water. The animal which was f
Sumatra differs from the common *Teredo* in being in
in mud: but it agrees with it so far in its general s
and appearance, that Mr. Home does not hesitate to
it as a *Teredo*; and from its size he gives it the specif
of *Gigantea*.—This and the preceding paper are acco
by characteristic and well delineated plates.

On the inverted Action of the alburnous Vessels of Tr
Thomas Andrew Knight, *Esq. F.R.S.*—In his former m
on the Physiology of Vegetables, Mr. Knight had ende
to prove that the sap of plants rises through the al
vessels, circulates through the extremities during the s
and, after being in part expended on the growth of th
the remainder passes down the bark, and is deposited
roots. A fact, however, is mentioned by Duhamel an
which Mr. Knight himself has verified by experime
which seemed to militate against this hypothesis. If
lar portion of the bark be removed from the stem of a
part below the wound continues to live, and even to
in size; a small ring is also formed about the lower li
wound; and it makes some advance towards the up
although the upper lip throws out a much greater qua
woody matter. Mr. K. supposes that this growth in th
part is occasioned by an inverted action in the alburn
sels, in consequence of which a small portion of the sa
through them, at the same time that a considerable
is retained in the cortical vessels above the wound.

To establish the fact of the inverted action of the al
vessels is the principal object of the present paper; and
to prove this point, the author selected the potatoe, bein
in which the vessels that convey the ascending sap to th

and those by which it descends, are in distinct organs. He has made an experiment, in which, by preventing the formation of the tubers, the upper part of the plant was rendered much more luxuriant and prolific; in this manner shewing that the sap was carried from the leaves and stems down to the tubers. He afterward, in a second experiment, carefully removed the whole of the bark from several of the stems, and yet he found that the tubers were produced, although they were of smaller than ordinary bulk. Hence he concluded that his position respecting the inverted action of the alburnous vessels is proved; since, in the latter experiment, no other passage appears by which the sap could be conveyed from the upper to the lower parts of the plant.—We admit that the reasoning is plausible; yet we must be permitted to add that the hypothesis will require the aid of more experiments, before it can be considered as absolutely established.

Description of the Mineral Basin in the Counties of Monmouth, Glamorgan, Brecon, Carmarthen, and Pembroke. By Mr. Edw. Martin.—The large cavity described in this paper is said to be composed of limestone, and to be the reservoir in which all the coal and iron ore of South Wales is deposited. Mr. Martin gives an apparently accurate account of its extent, and of the number and thickness of the different strata which it contains.

Observations on the Camel's Stomach, respecting the Water it contains, and the Reservoirs in which that Fluid is inclosed; with an Account of some Peculiarities in the Urine. By E. Home, *Esq. F.R.S.*—The peculiar property in the camel's stomach, by which it is enabled to take in a large stock of water before it commences its journies across the deserts, has been long known: but the exact structure and mechanism of the part have never yet been fully ascertained. Mr. Home's paper, however, has now furnished us with a clear and interesting account of this urious piece of comparative anatomy. In order to illustrate he subject, he begins by describing the digestive organs of the x; which, in many respects, agree with those of the camel their disposition and uses. In the ox, the first and second omachs are included in one general cavity; the drink passes mediately into the second stomach; and it is from this cay that the food is projected into the mouth, in order to unrgo the second mastication. When the food is again swalwed, it is immediately carried to the third stomach; and er having been detained there for some time, it passes into the urth, which is the immediate organ of digestion. The camel s the same number of cavities with the ox, and their general disposition is considerably similar. The food, however, do not seem to pass into the second stomach before it is returne into the mouth, but is ejected from a particular part of the first and after having been chewed, it is directly returned into th third. The drink passes into the second stomach, and, when thi is filled, runs over into that part of the first in which the food i lodged; and it would appear that the animal has a voluntar power of discharging the water from the second stomach, so a to moisten the food in the first. When the cud has bee chewed, it descends directly to the second stomach, an passes immediately into the fourth.—The apparatus by whic these actions are performed is well explained, and illustrate by some good engravings.

The experiments on the urine, as here communicated b Mr. Hatchett, were performed by Mr. Brande. He was n able to detect any benzoic acid, but he found a little of th uric; and he discovered in it the phosphat of lime. Th was likewise found in the urine of the cow; and these flui agreed, moreover, in not containing any salts composed of sod Yet these latter salts exist in the urine of the horse and t ass, which again differs from that of the other animals in n exhibiting any traces of the ammoniacal salts.

In mentioning the mode of killing the camel which was t subject of these experiments, by *pithing*, Mr. Home points o the erroneous manner in which this operation is often execute and which has led to the discouragement of the practice:

> 'The operation was performed with a narrow double-edg poniard passed in between the skull and first vertebra of the nec in this way the medulla oblongata was divided, and the animal inst taneously deprived of sensibility. In the common mode of pithi cattle, the medulla spinalis only is cut through, and the head rema alive, which renders it the most cruel mode of killing animals th could be invented.'

MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, &c.

Observations upon the Marine Barometer, made during the E amination of the Coasts of New Holland and South Wales, in Years 1801, 1802, *and* 1803. *By* Matthew Flinders, E. *Commander of his Majesty's Ship Investigator.*—If there be connection between the wind and weather and the variatic of the barometer, it is certainly most desirable that seam should be acquainted with the laws of that connection: but is evident that they can only be ascertained by long, patie and careful observation.

In the paper before us, Capt. Flinders furnishes some valua remarks, which, as far as they go, will be useful to the marin and if other navigators make observations, and cause them like the present to be registered, we shall gradually accumulate sufficient conditions and data for a theory and a system:—some future philosopher may arise who will arrange, compare, and combine the facts which he finds recorded.

On the necessity for every officer being provided with a barometer, Capt. F. says:

'The barometer seems capable of affording so much assistance to the commander of a ship, in warning him of the approach and termination of bad weather, and of changes in the direction of the wind, even in the present state of meteorological knowledge, that no officer in a long voyage should be without one. Some experience is required to understand its language, and it will always be necessary to compare the state of the mercury with the appearance of the weather, before its prognostications will commonly be understood; for a rise may foretel an abatement of wind,—a change in its direction,—or the return of fine weather, or if the wind is light and variable, it may foretel its increase to a steady breeze, especially if there is any casting in it; and a fall may prognosticate a strong breeze or gale, a change of wind, the approach of rain, or the dying away of a steady breeze. Most seamen are tolerably good judges of the appearance of the weather; and this judgment assisted by observation upon the quick or slower rising or falling of the mercury, and upon its relative height, will in most cases enable them to fix upon which of these changes are about to take place, and to what extent, where there is only one; but a combination of changes will be found more difficult, especially where the effect of one upon the barometer is counteracted by the other; as for instance, the alteration of a moderate breeze from the westward with dull, or rainy weather, to a fresh breeze from the eastward with fine weather, may not cause any alteration in the height of the mercury; though I think there would ually be some rise in this case. Many combinations of changes ight be mentioned, in which no alteration in the barometer would expected, as a little consideration, or experience in the use of this strument, will make sufficiently evident; the barometer alone, there-re, is not sufficient; but in assisting the judgment of the seaman, capable of rendering very important services to navigation.'

A new Demonstration of the Binomial Theorem, when the Ex-nent is a positive or negative Fraction. By the Rev. Abram obertson, *A. M. F.R.S., Savilian Professor of Geometry at ford.*—Since the invention of the law of the binomial theo-m, frequent attempts have been made to demonstrate it on ear and exact principles; and the author of the present de-onstration has already inserted one somewhat similar, in a eceding volume of the Transactions (viz. that for 1794.) e shall briefly state the principle on which the proof before s is founded.

If m, m', be integer numbers, then it is easily proved that

$$(1+v)^m = 1 + mv + \frac{m.\overline{m-1}}{2} v^2 + \&c.$$

$$(1+v)^{m'} = 1 + m'v + \frac{m'.\overline{m'-1}}{2} v^2 + \&c.$$

If these series be multiplied together, there results a series

$$1 + Av + A'v^2 + A''v^3 + \&c.$$

in which

$$A = m + m'$$

$$A' = \frac{m^2 + m'^2 - \overline{m+m'} + 2mm'}{2} = \frac{(m+m')\ (m+m'-1)}{2}$$

$$A'' = \frac{(m+m')\ (m+m'-1)\ (m+m'-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \ \&c.$$

Now although the formulas for $(1+v)^m$ $(1+v)^n$ have been deduced on the supposition of m, m' being whole numbers, yet if such series as $1 + mv +$ &c. and $1 + m'v$ &c. be multiplied together, values of A, A', A'', will be precisely the same with *regard to form*, whatever m, m' are, and consequently will be the same if m, m' be fractions. 'The actual multiplications,' says Mr. R. 'will end in the same powers of m and m', the same combinations of them, and the same numerals, whether we consider m and m' as whole numbers or as fractions.'—By virtue of this property, if $1 + \frac{1}{4}v + \frac{1}{2}.\frac{1}{4}.\overline{\frac{1}{4}-1}\,v^2 +$ &c. be assumed the 4th root of $1+v$; then, if we multiply this series into itself, the result will be $1 + \frac{2}{4}v + \frac{1}{2}.\frac{2}{4}\,(\frac{2}{4}-1)\,v^2 +$ &c.; and if this series be multiplied into itself, the result will be

$$1 + \frac{4}{4}v + \frac{1}{2}.\frac{4}{4}.\overline{\frac{4}{4}-1}\,v^2 + \&c.$$
$$= 1 + \frac{4}{4}v$$
$$= 1 + v$$

and consequently, the 4th root of $1+v$ was rightly assumed.

A similar method may be used for the 1th root. Now, if this demonstration of the binomial has any claim to originality, it must be in the remark relative to the property of the coefficients A, A', A'', &c. remaining the same in regard to form, whatever be the indices.—In the 19th volume of the *Novi Commentarii Petropol.* we have a demonstration of the binomial by Euler; and in the summary which always precedes the memoirs themselves, the reporter thus speaks of Euler's solution:

" $1 + nx +$ &c. *de quâ quidem serie constat, eam casu n numeri integri, æqualem esse* $(1+x)^n$, *generatim, vero hujus seriei valorem indicandum, indicat*

indicat Illust. Auctor signo [*n*]. *Quodsi nunc duo talia signa* [*m*] [*n*] *in se invicem ducantur, et productum exprimi supponatur per seri.m*

$$1 + Ax + Bx^2 + \text{\&c.}$$

coefficientes A, B, C, per litteras m et n determinari evidens est, patetque modum quo hæc determinatio sit, ab indole *m* et *n* non pendere, *ideoq. eundem esse sive m, n, supponantur integri, sin fracti. At si m, n, numeri integri, est omnino*

$$[m]\ [n] = (1+x)^{m+n} = [m+n]$$

unde generatim quoque

$$[m]\ [n] = [m+n]\text{'' \&c. \&c.}$$

If we consult the memoir itself, we shall find that the method of demonstration essentially rests on this principle: "*hic autem imprimis observari convenit, hanc compositiones rationem non* ab indole literarum *m* et *n* pendere, *sed perinde se esse habituram, sive hæ literæ* m *et* n *denotent* numeros integros, sive alios numeros quoscunque. *Hoc ratiocinium non vulgare probe notetur, quoniam ei tota vis nostræ demonstrationis innititur.*"—We think that these extracts prove, beyond the possibility of a doubt, that the principle of Mr. Robertson's demonstration is precisely the same with that which was adopted by Euler thirty years ago. It is not our wish, on the sameness of the principle and the simplicity of the two demonstrations, to found a charge of plagiarism against Mr. R.: but he must abandon all claim to originality or priority of invention; which must be awarded to Euler.

The honor of the invention, however, does not deserve to be violently contested. Euler's demonstration, when reduced to plainness from his uncouth symbols, is not a *direct* demonstration: he assumes a series for the case in which the index is a fraction, and then proves that this series was rightly assumed: this is very different from assuming

$$(1+x)^n = 1 + ax + bx^2 + \text{\&c.}$$

and then deducing $b = a.\frac{n-1}{2}$ 1 $c = b.\frac{n-2}{3}$, &c.

New Meth.d of computing Logarithms. *By* Thomas Manning, *Esq.*

'If there already existed (says the author) as full and extensive logarithmic tables as will ever be wanted, and of whose accuracy we were absolutely certain, and if the evidence for that accuracy could remain unimpaired throughout all ages, then any new method of computing logarithms would be totally superfluous so far as concerns the formation of tables, and could only be valuable indirectly, inasmuch as it might shew some curious and new views of mathematical truth. But this kind of evidence is not in the nature of human affairs. Whatever is recorded is no otherwise believed than on the evidence of testimony; and such evidence weakens by the lapse of time, even while the original record remains; and it weakens on a twofold account, if the record must from time to time be replaced by copies. Nor is this destruction of evidence arising from the uncertainty of the copy's being accurately taken, any where greater than in the case of copied numbers.

'It is useful then to contrive new and easy methods for computing not only new tables, but even those we already have. It is useful to contrive methods by which any part of a table may be verified independently of the rest; for by examining parts taken at random, we may in some cases satisfy ourselves of its accuracy, as well as by examining the whole.

'Among the various methods of computing logarithms, none, that I know of possesses this advantage of forming them with tolerable ease independently of each other by means of a few easy bases. This desideratum, I trust, the following method will supply, while at the same time it is peculiarly easy of application, requiring no division, multiplication, or extraction of roots, and has its relative advantages highly increased by increasing the number of decimal places to which the computation is carried.

'The chief part of the working consists in merely setting down a number under itself removed one or more places to the right, and subtracting, and repeating this operation; and consequently is very little liable to mistake. Moreover, from the commodious manner in which the work stands, it may be revised with extreme rapidity. It may be performed after a few minutes instruction by any one who is competent to subtract. It is as easy for large numbers as for small; and on an average about 27 subtractions will furnish a logarithm accurately to 10 places of decimals. In general $9 \times \frac{n+1}{2}$ subtractions will be accurate to $2n$ places of decimals.'

The method employed may be thus stated: suppose x to be any number, then

$$x - \frac{x}{\alpha} = \frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha} . x = r$$

again; $r - \frac{r}{\alpha} = \frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha} r = r'$

&c. and so on, suppose, to $r'' \; r'''$.

Again; $r^{\text{iv}} - \frac{r^{\text{iv}}}{\beta} = \frac{\beta - 1}{\beta} r^{\text{iv}} = r^{\text{v}}$

$$r^{\text{v}} - \frac{r^{\text{v}}}{\beta} = \frac{r^{\text{v}} (\beta - 1)}{\beta} = r^{\text{vi}} \text{ \&c. and so on.}$$

Hence if we stop at r^{vi}

$$x = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha - 1} r = \frac{\alpha^2}{(\alpha - 1)^2} r' = \frac{\alpha^5}{(\alpha - 1)^5} r^{\text{iv}} = \frac{\alpha^5}{(\alpha - 1)^5} \frac{\beta}{\beta - 1}$$

r^{v} &c.

$$r^{v} \text{ \&c.} = \frac{\alpha^5}{(\alpha-1)^5} \cdot \frac{\beta^2}{(\beta-1)^2}\, r^{vi}$$

Hence $h. \log. x = 5\, h.l \frac{\alpha}{\alpha-1} + 2\, h.l\, \frac{\beta}{\beta-1} + h.l.r^{vi}$

$$= 5 \left\{ \frac{1}{\alpha} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha^2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha^3} + \text{\&c.} \right\}$$

$$+ 2 \left\{ \frac{1}{\beta} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\beta^2} + \frac{1}{3\beta^3} + \text{\&c.} \right\}$$

$$+ h . r^{vi}$$

In the author's plan, α is 10, β either 100 or 1000, &c. and r^{vi}, supposing it to be the last remainder, is to be equal to 1, followed by $\frac{1}{2}$ as many cyphers as the number of decimal places to which it is intended to work. Thus, suppose $r^{vi} = 1.0000\,3141$, then $h. l. = .0000\,3141$ if we work only to 8 figures.

α and β being taken powers of 10, it is plain that $h. l. \frac{\alpha}{\alpha-1}$, $h\, l\, \frac{\beta}{\beta-1}$ &c. are readily calculated; and the operations, such as $x - \frac{x}{\alpha}$, or $x - \frac{x}{10}$, are performed by the aid of the decimal notation with the greatest ease.

In our instance, we have only employed α, β, and made six subtractions with α and two with β: but it is obvious that we might employ α, β, γ, &c. and make, generally, m subtractions with α, n with β, s with γ, &c.

If the quantities be greater than two, they must be reduced by division; thus, if the $h. l.$ 17 were required, $17 = 2^4 \cdot \frac{17}{6} = 2^4\,(1.0625.)$ $\therefore h. l.\, 17 = 4\, h. l.\, 2 + h. l. (1.0625)$ and any number between 1 and 2 is easily found by the method above described.

The principle of this method of computing logarithms is very simple, and the practice is both safe and easy. If the construction of new logarithmic tables were required, it would be valuable; and to us it is estimable for the skill and ingenuity with which it has been invented and constructed.

Observations on the Permanency of the Variation of the Compass at Jamaica. By Mr. James Robertson.—In Halley's time, the variation of the compass at Jamaica was 6½ degrees East: it is such at the present moment, and has remained the same ever since the grants of land in 1660. This circumstance is clearly and satisfactorily established by the following simple and brief account:

'I resided,

'I resided (says Mr. R.) at Jamaica, as a King's Surveyor of Land, upwards of 20 years. Disputes at law about boundaries of lands are there decided by ejectments, in the Supreme Court of Judicature, by the evidence and diagrams of King's surveyors of land. This is different from the practice in England, because the manner in which grants of land from the Crown are made, in the two countries, is different. In Jamaica, to every grant of land a diagram thereof is annexed to the patent. This diagram is delineated from an actual survey of the land to be granted, having a meridional line, according to the magnetical needle, by which the survey was made, laid down in it. No notice is taken of the true meridian The boundary lines of the land granted are marked on earth, (as it is denominated,) by cutting notches on the trees between which the line is run through the woods. These trees being mostly of hard timber, the notches will be discernible for 30 years, or more. By repeated re-surveys these lines are kept up: and, when the cultivation, on both sides, renders it necessary to fell the marked trees, (which can only be done by mutual consent, it being otherwise death by the law,) logwood fences are planted in the lines dividing the properties thus cultivated: and many of these fences have been regularly repaired, and kept up, to the present time. Lands were granted from the Crown soon after the Restoration, in 1660; and every succeeding year, the number of patents increased. The old estates have been often re-surveyed, and plans of them made, and usually annexed to deeds of conveyance, or mortgage, which must be enrolled, within a limited time, in the office of the Secretary of the Island; where, also, all the patents, and diagrams annexed to them, are recorded. In all disputes at law about boundary lines, where the keeping up of the old marked lines on earth has been neglected, surveyors are appointed to make actual re-surveys of all the old marked lines on earth, (preserved in the manner before mentioned,) and to extract from the Secretary of the Island's office, correct copies of all such diagrams annexed to patents, and to deeds of conveyance, or mortgage, of lands in the neighbourhood where the disputed boundary is, as they may think necessary for the investigation thereof. They then compare the lines, and meridians, of these original diagrams with those in their diagrams delineated from their own re-surveys recently made; when it is always expected that the lines, and meridians, of the former will coincide with those of the latter It is evident that this coincidence could not happen if any variation of the magnetical needle had taken place in the intermediate time elapsed between the making of the first, and of the last, survey My business being very extensive, I was frequently applied to in disputes at law about boundary lines, and I had, besides, abundance of opportunities, on other surveys, to ascertain this fact satisfactorily. From all which I have discovered that the courses of the lines, and meridians, delineated on the original diagrams annexed to patents, from 1660, downwards to the present time. and of the re-survey diagrams thereof, annexed to deeds, coincide with, and are parallel to, the lines and meridians delineated on the new diagrams from recent surveys made by the magnetical needle, of the same original marked lines on earth, preserved as before described; so that whatever course is laid down for the line on the diagram annexed to the patent, (and let it be supposed, for example, to be north and south, or east and west,) upon setting the compass in the old marked line on earth, and directing the sights north and south, or east and west, according to the magnetical needle, the said marked line on earth, originally run by the magnetical needle 130 or 140 years ago, has been found by me to be exactly in the line, or direction with that of the compass; consequently no alteration of the variation could have taken place during the whole, or any part, of that period of time in Jamaica.'

Observations on the Variation and on the Dip of the Magnetic Needle, made at the Apartments of the Royal Society between the Years 1786 *and* 1805 *inclusive. By Mr.* George Gilpin.—This memoir contains, perhaps, the most exact table of the variation of the compass that has been yet submitted to the public. During sixteen months, every day successively, and at several periods of time in each day, Mr. G. observed the compass. The hours were 7 A.M., 8 A.M., 10 A.M., 12 A.M., 1 P.M., 2 P.M., 4 P.M., 6 P.M., 8 P.M., 10 P.M., and 11 P.M.—At 7 A.M. and 8 A.M., the daily variation was at its minimum: at 1 P.M. and 2 P.M. at its maximum; and at 8 P.M. at its maximum again. The daily observations are comprized in tables occupying sixteen pages.

A table is also given for the mean monthly variation:

'Table IV. (says Mr. Gilpin) contains the differences for 12 years, viz. from 1793 to 1805, between the observations of the variation made in the months of March, June, September, and December, or at the times of the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and summer and winter solstices; by a mean of these 12 years, the variation appears to increase or go westward, from the winter solstice to the vernal equinox 0'.80; diminishes or goes eastward from the vernal equinox, to the summer solstice 1'.43; increases again from the summer solstice to the autumnal equinox 2'.43; and continues nearly the same, only decreasing 0'.14, from the said equinox to the winter solstice

'These differences at the times of the equinoxes and solstices have been noticed by M Cassini, in his observations made at the Royal Observatory at Paris, between the years 1783 and 178[illegible], but the effect was considerably greater in his observations, than in those mentioned above; his results however were, in my opinion, drawn from too few observations, being from only 8 days observations about the times of the equinoxes and solstices, which differ considerably among themselves; and experience teaches us, that magnetical observations made for a period so limited are not sufficient for minute purposes: I have therefore, in the results here given, taken the mean of the observations made during the whole month in which the equinoxes and solstices fall, which appear to me likely to furnish results more satisfactory; and all the foregoing observations are to be considered as the results or mean of a great many, by way of arriving at greater accuracy than could be obtained without; this, however, was found to be more necessary at some times than at others; sometimes, the needle would be extremely consistent with itself, so as to return exactly to the same point, however often it might have been drawn aside; at other times it varied 2 or 3′, sometimes 8, 10′, or even more; this uncertainty in the needle arises principally, I believe, from changes in the atmosphere, for a change of wind, from any quarter to another, almost always produced a change in the needle from steady to unsteady, and *vice versa*, but it was generally more unsteady with an easterly wind, than when it blew from any other quarter, and most steady when the wind was south or south-westerly. An Aurora Borealis always produced considerable agitation of the needle.'

The variation of the compass at present, according to Mr. Gilpin, is 24° 8′ West, and its annual increase is exceedingl small; so that we may conjecture the needle to have reached its greatest westerly declination.

Mr. Gilpin is eminently intitled to the gratitude of the philosophic world, for the care and assiduity bestowed on this subject, and (as it should seem) for the great nicety with which his observations were made.

On the Declinations of some of the principal fixed Stars; with a Description of an Astronomical Circle, and some Remarks on the Construction of circular Instruments. By John Pond, *Esq.*— With a circle constructed by Mr. Troughton, Mr. Pond made observations on the declinations of those stars, the right ascensions of which are observed at Greenwich; and his labours on this subject may be useful to Astronomers.—He suggests an ingenious and a very simple mode of examining the latitudes of places. If the declinations of the same Stars examined at different places do not agree, then the latitudes of the places of observations must have been inaccurately determined; and a correction therefore will be requisite. After having stated his method, and the corrections proposed to be made to the co-latitudes of Greenwich, Armagh, Palermo, and Westbury, he makes the following observation, which well merits attention:

'I consider this comparison as interesting likewise on another account; it is an object deserving of curiosity to examine the present state of our best astronomical instruments, and to ascertain what may reasonably be expected from them. The superiority of circular instruments is, I believe, too universally admitted, to render it probable that quadrants will ever again be substituted in their place. But the Greenwich quadrant is so intimately connected with the history of astronomy, the observations that have been made with it, and the deductions from those observations, are of such infinite importance to the science, that every circumstance relating to it cannot fail of being interesting,

interesting. Now when it is considered that this instrument has been in constant use for upwards of half a century, and that the center error, from constant friction, would during this time have a regular tendency to increase, it will not appear at all surprising, if the former accuracy of this instrument should be somewhat impaired. With a view, therefore, of ascertaining more correctly the present state of an instrument on which so much depends, I have exhibited in one view the polar distances as determined by circular instruments alone; the respective co-latitudes being previously corrected by the method above mentioned; and I have compared the mean result with the Greenwich Catalogue, that the nature and amount of the deviations may be seen, and if it be judged necessary, corrected. I should add, that by some observations of the sun at the winter solstice in 1800, the difference between the Greenwich quadrant and the circle was 10 or 12″, the quadrant still giving the zenith distance too little.'

Observations and Remarks on the Figure, the Climate, and the Atmosphere of Saturn and its Ring. By William Herschel, *LL.D. F.R.S.*—We have already noticed, in a preceding Number, the observations made by Dr. H. on the figure of Saturn*. It was the Doctor's opinion, last year, that this planet was flattened both at its poles and at the equator; and the present memoir confirms that idea.

The form of Saturn flattened at the poles, if it be the *real* form, is not that which, from reasons that obviously suggest themselves, results from the planet's rotation, and from the attraction of the Ring. The figure of Saturn was once differently represented by Dr. H.; and this discrepancy of representation having been urged as an objection against the new figure, he thus replies to that remark:

'In the year 1789 I ascertained the proportion of the equatorial to the polar diameter of Saturn to be 22.81 to 20.61, and in this measure was undoubtedly included the effect of the ring on the figure of the planet, though its influence had not been investigated by direct observation. The rotation of the planet was determined afterwards by changes observed in the configuration of the belts, and proper figures to represent the different situation of the spots in these belts were delineated. In drawing them it was understood that the shape of the planet was not the subject of my consideration, and that consequently a circular disk, which may be described without trouble, would be sufficient to show the configurations of the changeable belts.

'Those who compare these figures, and others I have occasionally given, in which the particular shape of the body of the planet was not intended to be represented, with the figure which is contained in my last paper, of which the sole purpose was to express that figure, and wonder at the great difference, have probably not read the measures I have given of the equatorial and polar diameters of this planet; and as it may be some satisfaction to compare the appearance of Saturn in 1789 with the critical examination of it in 1805, I have now drawn them from the two papers which treat of the subject; Fig. 1, Plate XXI. represents the spheroidical form of the planet as observed in 1789, at which time the singularity of the shape since discovered was unknown; and Fig. 2, represents the same as it appeared the 5th of May, 1805. The equatorial and polar diameters that were established in 1789 are strictly preserved in both figures, and the last differs from the first only in having the flattening at the poles a little more extended on both sides towards the equatorial parts. It is in consequence of the increase of the length of this flattening, or from some other cause, that a somewhat greater curvature in the latitudes of 40 or 45 degrees north and south has taken place; and as these differences are very minute, it will not appear extraordinary that they should have been overlooked in 1789, when my attention was intirely taken up with an examination of the two principal diameters of the planet.'

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* See M. Rev. N.S. Vol. xlix. p. 382.

We quote also the subsequent passage, as containing a fact which is rather remarkable, and for which we see no good reason. If it be exact, it ought to satisfy those who have used magnifying powers only moderately high, and have not been able to discern the pro-oblateness of Saturn:

'The use of various magnifying powers in observing minute objects is not generally understood. A low power, such as 200 or 160, with which I have seen the figure of Saturn, is not sufficient to show it to one who has not already seen it perfectly well with an adequate high power; an observer, therefore, who has not an instrument that will bear a very distinct magnifying power of 500, ought not to expect to see the outlines of Saturn, so sharp and well defined as to have a right conception of its figure. The quintuple belt is generally a very good criterion; for if that cannot be seen, the telescope is not sufficient for the purpose; but when we have intirely convinced ourselves of the reality of the phenomena I have pointed out, we may then gradually lower the power, in order to be assured that the great curvature of the eye-glasses giving these high powers, has not occasioned any deceptions in the figure to be investigated, and this was the only reason why I mentioned that I had also seen the remarkable figure of Saturn with low powers.'

A List of Presents received by the Society, and an Index, according to *antient and laudable custom*, terminate this volume.

Art. IX. *Recollections of Paris*, in the Years 1802-3-4-5. By J. Pinkerton. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. about 500 in each. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

If Fashion presided only over articles of personal decoration, Mr. Pinkerton's idea of representing her as 'the deified little milliner' would be admissible: but the province of this divinity is of much wider range, extending even to the region of intellect, and influencing men of letters as well as fancy dress-makers. Our thoughts take their hue from those which have been prevalent in the society with which, by choice, we have been most conversant; and in preparing them for the public, we generally fall into the adopted mode of exhibition. Hence arises a fashion in book-making; and authors. even while they seem to study variety, preserve in certain traits a kind of family likeness.

Mr. Pinkerton, in his *Recollections of Paris*, may urge that he has given accounts of the French capital, of its environs, and its inhabitants, which, from his long residence, may be supposed to possess superior accuracy, and some of which are not to be found in any of the several publications with which we have been lately presented; he may plead, moreover, in excuse for his title, that 'he took no notes;' and that the greater part of these volumes is the result of a happy memory, combined with such observations as were excited by the state of the country and of the society which he explored. So far we have no objection to his proceedings: but we see no necessity for interweaving Essays with his *recollected* facts; we find too much of modern authorship in the manufacture and complexion of his work; and his considerations on the writings of Rousseau tend to interrupt the narrative, and needlessly to swell the volume. Some individuals, it is probable, will accuse him of being too *frenchified*; of discovering too great a partiality for the country and usages of our enemies; of being too forward in their vindication; and of arguing with too much energy on the policy of cultivating their friendship, even in the closest bonds, at the very moment when war is raging with all the malignity of the most inflamed passion. We are not, however, of the number of those who upbraid Mr. P. with being a cosmopolitical traveller; and so far are we from being displeased with his endeavours to impress a conviction on the two countries of the superior advantages which would accrue to each from the strenuous cultivation of the arts of peace, in preference to the favourite though unchristian system of war, that we should derive the most heart-felt pleasure from the practical adoption of this principle: but, unfortunately for both parties, mutual resentment and animosity are carried to such a height, that the patriotism of the sagacious and prudent counsellor is suspected; and the *still small voice* of reason is drowned amid the clangor of arms. Nations, like individuals, are continually blind to their own interests, and are better pleased with those who foster their pride and their passions, than with those who exhort them to be wise. Should Mr. P. fail, from the prejudices of the moment, of subserving the interests of beneficence and humanity to the extent which he desires, it must be allowed that he has added to the mass of our information respecting Paris; and that, by long residence and intimate intercourse with the native inhabitants, he is enabled to exhibit views of manners which occur not to the fugitive rambler.

Many of the objects here noticed are such as have been mentioned in recent accounts of the French capital. We have descriptions of the Boulevards, National Library, Louvre, Garden of Plants, Palace of the Luxembourg, Garden of the Tuileries, Museum of National Monuments, Bridges, Baths, Streets, Taverns, Churches, &c. To these common topics, however, are added several that are new, and which merit particular notice. Mr. Pinkerton presents to us the state of Literature, Medicine, and Education, gives us a view of the Revenue, Taxes, new civil code, of the Police, &c. with distinct chapters intitled Moral Considerations and General Reflections.

Having so repeatedly accompanied the visitors of the Modern French capital to palaces, gardens, statues, pictures, &c. we shall not, on the present occasion, quote the author's remarks on these matters of general observation, though in these he has not always followed the opinions of others *: confining our extracts to matters which are less trivial.

In the chapter on Learning and Literary Societies, Mr. P. adverts to the different treatment of the members of the latter on the different sides of the channel:

> 'While in England the members of learned societies pay annual sums towards their expence; in France, on the contrary, these members were, and are, paid by the government. The consultation of geographers, chemists, and other scientific characters, on the arrangement of public measures, was also often productive of great and lasting effects; while in some other countries Generals are sent out without maps or plans; and operations depending on chemistry or other sciences, are all projected and arranged by an omniscient minister.

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* For instance, he does not greatly admire the Venus de Medici; he thinks that it was classed by the antients among the third or fourth-rate productions of the art.

The astonishing successes that have recently followed the French arms may in a great degree be ascribed to this cause; not to mention that the leaders themselves are often not only deeply versed in their own profession, but considerably tinctured with other sciences.'

To this statement, we subjoin his account of the Institute:

'The chief literary society in France is the Institute, which has been recently modelled in imitation of the former academies, one class representing the academy of sciences, another that of inscriptions, a third that of the French language, while a fourth replaces the academy of painting and sculpture. In all these classes, as happens in such institutions, men of superior talents are mingled with one half or one third part mere quacks, who have usurped a ridiculous reputation by low intrigues, and by taking advantage of particular times and circumstances. Still the mass of science and the freedom of inquiry are so preponderant, that the Institute may be regarded as a grand focus of illumination, particularly in natural philosophy and chemistry. The members wear a particular dress, black, embroidered with green silk. I know not how it has happened that these distinctive dresses have become in vogue since the revolution, for they are certainly very remote from republican forms or equality, rarely appearing, on the contrary, except in despotic governments. But this conspires with many other circumstances to evince that the French character can never become truly republican, as these petty distinctions, arising from vanity, form the antipodes of republican modesty. That magistrates, while exercising their functions, should wear a solemn dress, is natural and rational; but that counsellors of state, senators, members of the legislative body, of the tribunate, of the Institute, &c., should be distinguished by their costume, seems a novelty in European history, certainly not indicative of the progress of rational liberty or solid knowledge.

'The secretaries of the Institute are now nominated during their lives, but the presidents during a short period. In this plan there is the advantage that the president cannot influence the society in favour of any particular branch of science to which he may chance to give the preference; far less can he arrange it like a machine to serve the particular objects of his own ambition. But, on the other hand, he is not so deeply interested in the welfare of the society, nor can he form such durable plans for its progressive advantage.

'The secretaries have been nominated during their lives, apparently because the situation demands practical skill. But in general it is a subject of astonishment and regret that many literary situations in France are only held during the good health of the possessor. Thus if any of the masters of the lycées or public schools, should be afflicted with a lasting infirmity, he totally loses his appointments, and is reduced to a state of beggary. A bare recital of such cruelty is sufficient to excite indignation in every beneficent bosom; to superadd poverty to disease being a truly tyrannic refinement.'

Among the exhibitions of the works of living artists in the year 1802, we are informed of a large picture by Gros, (a disciple of David,) representing 'Bonaparte, commander i chief of the army of the East, at the moment that he touches a pestilential tumour, on his visit to the hospital at Jaffa.' This singular piece introduces the notice of the heinous charge produced against Bonaparte, of having ordered his own sick soldiers to be poisoned. Instead of fulminating anathemas against the French Chief, as having unquestionably perpetrated this atrocious deed, the present writer is inclined to question the fact.

> 'It was said (he observes) that Desgenettes, a physician who appears in this picture with Bonaparte, (and the strict resemblance was acknowledged by all Paris), was the very person who had reported that the general of the East had been guilty of this cruelty. It seems, however, little probable that in such a case the subject should have been permitted to be thus exposed to public observation and inquiry: and this respectable physician has certainly not been rewarded for his silence, having no office nor emolument that can bespeak the consciousness of such an action. I have also conversed with many literary men who went with the army of the East, and who spoke with great freedom and dislike of the Syrian campaign, as an enterprise equally rash and useless, but never heard any charge upon thi account. It may be said that the honour of the French name induced them to this silence; but no Frenchman forgets that Bonapart is an Italian and a Corsican. The reader will, however, judge fo himself; but those who have the best hearts will be the last to b persuaded of the truth of the accusation.'

Those who are inclined to believe any thing against Bonaparte will not thank Mr. P. for this side wind in his favour —

Though the view of the state of medicine be short, it is n unworthy of notice; and the same may be observed of t account of the French method of bathing. The hints relat to the improvement of the streets of Paris more concern the habitants of that city than those of London.

From the chapter on the modern Education of the Fren the interesting nature of its contents induces us to make a lo extract:

> 'It was under the administration of François de Neufchâteau, t the new name of Prytaneum was adopted; and when Chaptal bec minister of the interior, one hundred and eighty scholarships w granted at the public expence, and soon after one hundred oth all to be named by the first consul. It was at the same time per ted that other children might share the advantage of the car education proposed, on paying a moderate salary. This institutio immediately under the care of the minister of the interior, who na the directors and professors. Mass is celebrated every morning, b no blame is attached to those who do not attend: gymnastic e ercises are also mingled with instructions in the moral duties tow th

their parents, their country, and the Supreme Being; but each scholar is at perfect liberty to follow his own mode of worship.

'Instead of the old pedantic routine, simple and practical methods have been adopted. Instead of a general tinge of superficial knowledge, the talents and inclination of the scholars are carefully observed, and directed to such studies as they may pursue with most advantage.

'The course of study is divided into three distinct parts. Children are first taught the French language and grammar, a first and indispensable branch, which is never neglected during the whole period of instruction. The Latin tongue is carefully taught by the methods of Condillac and Dumarsais, which spare the time, and sometimes prevent the disgust of the scholars. In this first course, all are taught the elements of arithmetic.

'To this course, merely elemental and grammatical, succeeds another, in which the scholars are taught composition; and instituted in the elements of literature, French, Latin, and Greek.

'In the third course, the education is completed by that kind of instruction which is adapted to their talents and inclinations: rhetoric, philosophy, and the mathematics, with mechanics, surveying, and the first principles of astronomy and chemistry, are laid before the students. Geography is not only studied, but accompanied with the practical art of drawing maps and plans. In history, the scholars write down the lessons, so as to form a little collection of their own omposition. In the second and third course, all are taught the erman and English languages; and the study of drawing is alike niversal. A fencing master and a dancing master are each charged ith a class of twenty five scholars, chosen for their good behaviour; ut any may be taught these arts, and music, at the expence of their arents. Gymnastic and military exercises and swimming are pracsed by all, on the days of vacation. The instruction is not uniform, plan rather calculated to enchain than to develope the faculties, but varied according to the talents, dispositions, and future views. A lect and ample library is open to the scholars.

'They are divided, according to their age and studies, into classes twenty five; each forming a separate habitation, with a school and eeping rooms, under the care of an experienced teacher, who watches er their manners and conduct, assists their inexperience in literary il, forms their character by remonstrating on their faults and teachg them their duties, sees that they read no improper books, and at they write regularly to their friends. He presides over their asts, attends when they rise and go to bed, in short, never quits m except when he brings them to the professors, adopting every e of a good master and father of a family. A careful servant, igned to each class or division, is charged with the physical care the children, their dress and personal cleanliness. It may not be proper to add, that they sleep alone, and are carefully watched by teacher, who is placed in the centre of the division; and that the mestic and a night-watcher walk through the sleeping rooms, to ard against the smallest accident or impropriety.

'The games and recreations of the children are always superintended by the masters, and their walks, in particular, are well watched. A regulation, approved by the government, forbids them to leave the house upon any pretence, except during the vacations, when they may visit their families. They are, however, indemnified by the extent of their own domains, even those at Paris passing the summer days of vacation at the large house and park of Vanvres, in gymnastic exercises, swimming, and such little exercises in gardening and agriculture, as they may choose.

'Although sickness be rare, a physician and surgeon constantly reside in the house; and there is an infirmary where the sick children are attended with the same care as if they were in their own families. At the same time, every attention is paid to the general health. The halls and rooms are well aired, a regular warmth distributed in winter, the food of a salutary nature, and the beginning of any disease carefully marked and opposed.

'Such is the general plan of this institution, in which there is doubtless much to be praised; but in the division of the courses, it may be doubted whether the Latin should enter into the first course, where writing might supply its place; and, in fact, this first course ought wholly to belong to the primary schools. Yet, upon the whole, the education is excellent, and the distribution of the prizes, which takes place before the summer vacation, forms a very interesting and crowded spectacle. After discourses by the director, and by the minister of the interior, or any other member of the administration named to dignify the ceremony by his presence, the names of the boys who have distinguished themselves in each branch are solemnly proclaimed, with flourishes of music, and the plaudits of the audience. The boy advances, is embraced by the minister, who places on his head a wreath of laurel, and gives him some valuable book. The catalogue of the victors and prizes is afterwards published, to the great satisfaction of parents and friends.

'Let me not be accused of being tedious on a subject of such infinite importance as practical education, the subject of innumerable books, but of difficult execution, as what seems true and salutary in theory, often, in practice, proves false and detrimental. Nor shall an apology be offered for some further illustrations of this interesting topic, and which, though sometimes minute, may be of lasting consequence to the community.

'The board at the Prytanée, now the Lyceum of Paris, is nine hundred francs a year, (not thirty eight pounds sterling), but each boarder must pay quarterly, and by advance. Each boarder must bring a trunk, containing the following articles:

'A great coat of broad cloth, colour, iron grey—the uniform of the school. An uniform coat of iron grey, with blue collar and sleeves. Two waistcoats, &c., of the same. Two white waistcoats, one of cloth, the other of dimity. Two pair of sheets, of ten ells. One dozen napkins. One dozen of shirts. Two bed-gowns. Twelve handkerchiefs. Six cravats of double muslin, and two of black silk. Six pair of cotton stockings, of mixed blue, and a nd two white. Six cotton night caps. Two hats, one three c ered. Two pair of shoes. Two combs, and a comb brush. lothes brush. A plate and goblet of silver, or other metal, at t hoice of the parents, and marked with the number of the schol hich is also put on his other effects, that no other may u em.

' After this first equipment, no further expence is incurred fo he children, whether sick or in health. The dress and all the othe rticles are renewed at the expence of the institution, during the whol course of the studies, except losses positively ascertained to have been made by the scholars themselves. For books, maps, and paper, used in the third course, there is an additional charge of twenty-five franks, or a guinea a year. The trunk, except the sheets and napkins, is returned when the scholar leaves the Lyceum; and as only French manufactures are permitted, the articles, in case of difficulty, may be easily procured at the house.

'The boys educated at this seminary are very numerous, generally appear stout and healthy, and possessed with an interesting emulation. The military part of their education is rather to be regretted; but it is to be feared that the ambition of France will render it necessary in other countries.'

As "Education forms the common mind," and as the character of a people must be in a great measure impressed by their systems of instruction, it is impossible for the sensible part of our readers not to reflect with seriousness on the account presented in the foregoing quotation. France may be considered as a military academy; and if, under this impres- on, we calculate her population, what may we not apprehend m the fostering care of this martial spirit? We ought ma- rely to weigh the tendency of this mode of education, as ng more a cause of alarm than all the present conquests d acquisitions of our enemies.—The speech of Fourcroy, ector-general of public instruction, delivered in August 1805, ives some comments from Mr. P. which ought not to be looked:

When the orator proceeds to shew the advantages of a mix- f military education, his judgment seems to be warped by the ity of pleasing a military monarch. He observes that all the are, by the law, called at a fixed age to the defence of the and that this law cannot be considered as unjust, as by some tigue and danger, the repose and security of life are procured, e payment of a part of property the remainder is preserved. ises the conscription as the guarantee of the extent of the empire, and preserving equality by equality of service. feudal times," says he, "we were divided as it were into ons, the people and its masters, and the former could not, military dignities. But at present officers are appointed erit; the career of honour is open to every man of courage; only to be acquired by service, and service alone gives a right to distinction. Hence, he adds, the inequality of r tally destroyed, and even the last vestiges of feudality h peared; the heirs of ancient families not being respecte birth, though many of them continue to be honoured fo vices to the empire. Nor does the new order of things transmission of hereditary dignities, but the heir must himself before he can aspire to the glory of his fathe France is certain of seeing brave leaders at the head of bra

Notwithstanding the general decline of commerce complaint in the cities of the weight of taxes, it i that the grand staple of France, *agriculture*, has cert benefited by the revolution. More land, we are tol ally cultivated than before, the farms are more divide skill and industry are exerted, the stock of cattle is i and greater comfort prevails among the peasantry. venue of France is computed to be thirty-two m pounds sterling.

Among the topics *not necessarily* connected with *R* *of Paris*, are 'Considerations on a commercial tr France;' but, though this chapter might have been s do not object to the nature of its contents. If the tw were in a temper adapted to the fair discussion of i both would feel themselves obliged to Mr. Pinkert hints: but, as things are, he will be thanked by nei his remonstrances will be poured *surdis auribus*. ever, it may not be altogether useless to record go though for the present the parties concerned are no to follow it, we shall copy a small part of these c tions:

'Anger and enmity are indeed the blindest of all th and will sometimes incur even great personal injury, in ord an adversary. But wicked and designing men, who wi during the conflagration, can alone desire to encourage such diabolical passions, attended with consequences abhor manity not to speak of christianity, between the two mos nations of the globe, and formed by nature for mutual assis tercourse, friendship, and esteem. It is time that an end the collision of the mean and ridiculous intrigues of c priests, and pretended statesmen; and that the voice of nations be heard. Above all, if we wish for durable pros must, instead of combating against the decrees of provide to avail ourselves of repeated lessons, and of the existin stances. Where the events can no longer be controlled by wisdom will seek to accommodate the counsels to the ev oriental proverb declares, that *a wise man may change his op* *fool never*: and it is indeed in the very nature of ignoran know the real nature and influence of the events, and of ob most usual concomitant, to endeavour a vain struggle ag

Supposing that no relations of friendship or enmity had ever existed between this island and France, supposing that it had moved from one part of the world to another, and had unexpectedly been placed in the immediate neighbourhood of a great and powerful empire, ever celebrated for the military ardour of its people, and with three times our population, would it not have been accounted imprudent to seek occasions of war against this mighty neighbour? But when it came to be discovered that this large adjacent territory produced articles of which we stood much in need, while it wanted many of our manufactures and commerce; would it not be accounted still more imprudent to exchange the advantages of commerce and mutual intercourse, for the privations of war, and the incalculable detriment of mutual enmity? If we were placed in the situation of Japan, we should, by parity of reasoning, enter into constant warfare, patriotic rancour, and most honourable jealousy against the potent empire of China.'

The author represents the geographical situation of Great Britain and France as exactly similar to that of the kingdoms of Japan and China.—We shall not attend to his new plan of restoring the balance of power in Europe under the form of five great empires: since the sword of the conqueror, and not the discussions of philosophers, will mark the boundaries of nations.

The letters to Mr. P. from his Polish friend Mr. Orchowski, on Polish literature, and on the present state of Poland, are of some interest: but they do not belong to his professed subject.

Mixing intimately with the respectable society of the French capital, the author was qualified for discussing the forms of etiquette, and for stating the order of the dishes at a fashionable French dinner. The superiority of the luxury of Paris compared with that of London is asserted, however reluctant Englishmen may be to credit it.—A distinct chapter is assigned to 'the geography of French wines,' from which it might be inferred that the Parisians are addicted to the pleasures of the bottle: but the contrary, however, is the fact. Their potations are moderate, in spite of the temptation of an abundant variety; 'the *abominable* practice of toasts,' as Mr. P. terms it, is not in use among them; drunkenness is a phænomenon in the superior classes of the community; and it is added that the head of the empire is 'a model of the severest temperance.'

In giving these views of the Parisian character, and even in the accounts which are presented of the mineralogy of the environs of the French metropolis, Mr. Pinkerton may have drawn on the bank of his Recollection:—but certain make-weight articles appear, which are evidently derived from another quarter. The chapters intitled '*Small Talk*,' and '*Fragments*,' are mostly extracted from journals, and books of bon mots; and

many of them no otherwise pay for their transcription
occupying space. This species of patch-work is vei
Unus et alter assuitur pannus; and thus handsome look
lumes are produced.

The route of the author's return to his own countr
through Flanders and Holland, sketches of the chara
those people, as well as of their chief towns, are sul
It is said that the devotion of the Flemings, 'which f
depended on the wealth and influence of the clergy, ha
peared, and has given place to a taste for the theatre an
social amusements;' and of the Dutch it is observ
'money and Calvinism form the sole objects of their
tions.' On his taking leave of the continent, he caut
against French Emigrants, as the betrayers of their uns
ing benefactors, and urges the policy of sending them a
grants of land, to Canada; and though a strong pred
for French manners seems to betray itself in his deline
Parisian enjoyments, 'a flush of satisfaction which
the sensation of existence' was felt by Mr. P., as he
us, at the moment of alighting on English ground, o
'delivered from the police of Paris, from passports, ga
commissaries, and consuls.'

Some pompous words occur, as well as a few erro
some things are recollected twice, as the derivation
word *calembourg* in vol. i. p. 462. and vol. ii. p. 370.

ART. X. *An Inquiry into the Requisite Cultivation and Pre*
of the Arts of Design in England. By Prince Hoare. 12
Boards. R. Phillips.

INQUIRY is a term of high import and a duty of sac
gation. If ably and rigorously executed, it ma
rially promote the rights of truth and the interests of kn
but if superficially or partially pursued, it may either s
injure or finally retard them.—When our scientific lu
the illustrious Bacon, had dispersed the mists of vul
interested prejudice, which had been thickened into
dowing obscurities by the intrigue and selfishness
cloistered ages, nothing was taken for granted, but
mitted to the ordeal of investigation. Yet so tena
their dogmas had been the cowl'd impostors, that it wa
to doubt their promulgated tenets, however repugnant
mon sense, to truth, and to the advantages that migh
rived from the knowlege and practice of true religion
with superstition the genius of the Arts lay buried i

dary tales—The good Erasmus also exposed to the world the venality, pride, and intolerance which had coalesced to stifle reason, and the noblest function of man,—the use of his senses; and he manifested how much the Cloisters were aware that ignorance and credulity have ever been inseparable companions.

Since that period, many writers have assumed the specious name of *Inquirers*; perhaps to answer very little other purpose than to make a plausible attempt at establishing some party hypothesis favourable to a Sect, Society, or Institution: to all which cases, we may apply the emphatic expression of the great promoter of science already mentioned, "*such are liable to suspect.*"—Where flattery has much concern, it may be feared that truth is little consulted; and how often are realities found totally different from their superficial appearances:

> "So may the outward shows be least themselves;
> The world is still deceived with ornament.
> In law, what plea so tainted and corrupt,
> But, being season'd with a gracious voice
> Obscures the show of evil?" SHAKSPEARE.

Philosophy, stedfast to the investigation of truth, is of no party; neither have been the liberal Arts, in those countries in which they most have flourished: but the very term, of *liberal* Arts, should tell us that to thrive they must be free.

False critics have produced as much mischief perhaps as false prophets; since, instead of aiding the progress of true Art, they have contributed to weaken it by the incongruities of flippant observations and erroneous conclusions. Whether this evil proceeded from vanity, from interest, or from any other cause, is immaterial; the effect produced on the public mind is the same. We regret to say that, in several instances, blame of this nature attaches to the late ingenious Horace Walpole; who has given a certain degree of currency to assumed corollaries and trifling remarks. If "a little learning is a dangerous thing," so is a little knowlege of the vast field of Art.

Experience amply shews that the state of public manners and morals has ever influenced and regulated that of the liberal Arts.—In every age and country, in which the generality of pursuits are at best trifling, the study of the Arts will be proportionably insignificant. It was more the labours of the mind than of the hand, that gave to the culture and execution of them in Greece the high pre-eminence to which they had attained. The minds of Pericles and of Phidias were equally illumined; and their abilities differed only in relation to the mechanism of workmanship, by drawing the "existing figure from its

concealment, in the unsculptured block of Pentelic or of
marble." Modern institutions, however necessary
splendour of variety, are too much connected with p
and they have often proved not only insufficient, but i
to the true culture of the Arts, in their progress to the
excellencies. Their state in the Grecian Republics c
tiquity depended on the dispositions of the citizen
the manners of the several commonwealths. As thes
virtuous in promoting the enthusiastic love of country,
the pure flame of liberty abated in their bosoms, so a
fell the thermometer of excellence in the Sister Arts
sign.

Wherever the arts are considered merely as matters
pricious ostentation, where patronage is made a stalking
and little or nothing is done essentially to cultivate that
alone is truly valuable, what rational benefit can be ex
by multiplying institutions? To give birth to works th
stitute sound Art, the generality of artists, and the pu
large, should be supplied with the means of obtaining
information than they possess, by the exhibition of the fi
amples of human skill. This object might be obtain
forming a public gallery on a magnificent scale of
tion, and by adopting a liberal system of general adm
We would hope, though we fear that the hope is vain
the rare example of the Marquis of Stafford will be fo
by the majority of the numerous other possessors of
collections, though some objections to the mode of admis
Cleveland Row may be fairly made; for the churlish m
in which the public are debarred access to most of these
sitories, meets no parallel in the civilized world. To t
credit even of the Legislature, free ingress and egres
formerly been denied at a National Museum, of whic
rarities have been chiefly purchased and are maintained
National charge: but we learn with sincere satisfaction th
a more liberal regulation will henceforth be adopted.

It may be inferred from these preliminary observation
we regard the subject of the present work as of consid
interest and importance; and we are disposed to offer o
marks on it at rather unusual length.—Mr. Hoare states
preface;

> 'It is not my design, in this short treatise, to present to th
> er a complete investigation of the faculties of Painting and
> ture, but to offer to his perusal such remarks as my particular
> tion has enabled me to form. The Honorary Office which I
> the Royal Academy, and the task in which I have there en
> have led me to many reflections on the various degrees of e

made by different States, in proportion to their respective powers, for the advancement of the Plastic Arts; and thence, forsaking the ungrateful office of comparison, I have been induced to examine abstractedly, how far, *in this particular point*, a full and adequate use has been made of the means and talents of my own country, for the discharge of that most important of all trusts, the due cultivation of the strength and faculties of a nation.'

This object is pursued in three Parts, (subdivided into Chapters and Sections) treating, 1st, *Of the Advantages arising from the Cultivation of the Arts, and on the Methods most conducive to their Advancement*; 2dly, *Of the Establishment, Design, and Progress of the Royal Academy of Arts, and of its Annual Exhibitions*; and, 3dly, *Of the Powers of English Genius, conducive to Excellence in the Arts.*

Respecting the importance of the Arts in exalting the National Character, and their influence in the Grecian republics, Mr. H. cites the following remarks from Mr. Harris:

"The Grecian commonwealths," says the elegant author of Hermes, "(while they maintained their liberty), were the most heroic confederacy that ever existed; they were the politest, the bravest, and the wisest of men: in the short space of little more than a century, they became such statesmen, warriors, orators, historians, physicians, poets, critics, painters, sculptors, architects, and philosophers, that one can hardly help considering that golden period as a providential event in honour of human nature, to shew to what perfection the species might ascend."

'Now, (adds Mr. Hoare) if the fame of the Greek states be thus pre-eminent, and if it must necessarily occur to every reader of history, that, of all the various parts of character enumerated in the passage from Hermes above mentioned, the three which regard the plastic arts, are those alone wherein the Greeks have as yet found no equal competitor, it appears just to conclude, either that those arts possess in themselves, exclusively, the privilege of conferring the laurel of fame, or that their influential effect on the nation that cultivates them is that of rousing it to such superiority of effort, as equally to deserve the palm in all the various points of character. Either of these conclusions must sufficiently demonstrate the *importance of the arts to the fame of a nation*.'

The propriety of the preceding quotation, on this occasion, must be admitted; and it is evident that the excellence, thus strongly depicted, is materially to be attributed to a combination of propitious circumstances, at Athens under Pericles, and at Rome under the virtuous Antonines, and under the pontificate of the second Julius.—In France, where a noble foundation was laid by Francis I. great talents have existed; and these were regulated by the times.—It is but justice to say also of our countrymen, that England has felt no want of sufficient talents to cultivate the Arts with the best success, in all their highest departments;

ments; though numberless concurring causes have arisen to depression and final prevention of considerable attempts. T competency of Britons in these branches has been so often and ably discussed, that it seems scarcely necessary to descant f ther on the fallacious reasonings and vague aspersions of M tesquieu, Dubos, Winckelmann, &c. The labours of Bacc Locke, and Newton, in science, and those of Milton and Shakspe in literature, under all the supposed disadvantages of climate a of *the nature of our food*, are evidences which alone suffice refute such syllogistic reasonings; and the exertions that ha been made in the liberal Arts are facts which render inco trovertible our sufficiency to farther attainments. Instead wondering that more has not been done, it ought to excite t astonishment of the contemplative that so much has been p formed; especially in the higher provinces of the Plas Arts. Barry's Inquiry should be ever attentively read; and it remembered that Sir James Thornhill's public works wer as Mr. H. observes, referred to mercantile Commissioners, an estimated *by the yard.*—The powers of Giles Hussey, who ha education and talents equal to the highest undertakings in th historic line of painting, were lost to the world from his na tive timidity and unassuming deportment; unable or unwilling to contend against faction and vulgar prejudices, his acquirements fell a prey to the bawling ignorance of self-sufficient cabals. Had he painted live Mackerel, or the ribs of roasted Beef, his works would have been noticed by numerous employers, his reputation have been extolled, and his fortune have been made.—Hogarth's inimitable pictures, tracing the progress of human follies and vices from their source to their despicable or their tragic ends, could meet no adequate sale, until his decease; and it was from the product of inconsiderable prints, that he gained his daily bread.—The noblest effusions of Wilson's classic mind, committed to canvass, in many instances remained on his hands partially noticed; while Dalton's execrable descriptions of antiquities that are miserably represented gained admittance into the library of a Prince.—Mortimer's early talents, if sufficiently cultivated, might have shone conspicuously by the works of Annibal Caracci: but ere they were patronized, he unfortunately fell a prey to dissipation and debauchery.—Revett lived in gloomy yet serene obscurity, amid his studious avocations; and the nature of his retired disposition having led him to but slender employ, he died unrewarded.—On the canvass of Stubbs, we behold the rapid and energetic coursers whirl the Chariot of the Sun through the sublime expanse of Æther; freed from the restraint of the vain and incompetent Phaeton, and setting fire to all that comes in contact with the wheels. This incomparable production of native genius was, with several others, so far lost to public notice, as to have remained for a very long succession of years unpurchased on the walls of his show-room; works of which, in more propitious times, for the encouragement and the advancement of the Arts, kings would have contended for the possession.

How illustrative of cultivated genius are the writings of Richardson on the Arts! while the discourses of Reynolds, Thos. Sandby, and Barry, add lustre to their practical eminence.

Barry has left to the present and to the succeeding generations of British Artists, a legacy of memorable examples, and of the wonderful effects of unremitting perseverance;—the only means of attaining the rugged heights of Parnassus, to which so many content themselves with looking up, without displaying the fortitude required by the attempts to climb. His paintings, which were executed with the sole view of proving what opportunities had been lost, and what Englishmen were capable of achieving, display the sublimest effusions of the human mind, directed to the inculcation of sound morals, so essential to the elevation and dignity of man: yet, as in the case of Hogarth, they obtained no purchasers, and like Hogarth he supplied his wants by the sale of his own engravings. Barry had his faults, as no man is without; while he had virtues and talents which few can boast. His principal performances were a series of Epic paintings and of Attic conceptions which depict the origin and progress of human culture, through its varied combinations, to the final retribution of beatitude or misery. Placed on the walls of the Adelphi Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. they are in every respect appropriate to their situation; and they form a work which, for its unique combination of mental and of manual powers, would have been recognised with unbounded approbation in the best ages of antiquity.

At his death only did Barry receive the honours due to his talents and his disinterested exertions. When the publication before us made its appearance, he reposed from his labours, like another Hercules; and to the credit of that Society to which he had been an uncommon ornament, his remains had been placed in their apartments in all the state of funereal grandeur, surrounded by his immortal productions. The spectacle was of the most impressive nature: the shade of Barry was the very Victor at Olympia, whose works gave interest to the venerable corpse, and whose memory was adorned by the union of the palm and the laurel.

Such is a brief and imperfect sketch of the merits and the fate of Barry! Yet in Mr. Hoare's book, professing to be an 'Inquiry into the requisite cultivation and the present state of the arts of design in England,' *his* paintings, which form so superior an example in illustration of that Inquiry, find no mention! This, surely, is a fact to be equally reprobated and lamented; however grating a due tribute to him might have been to the advocates of that Institution, with which Mr. H. is connected by the important office of Secretary for Foreign Correspondence!

The influence of the Arts, and their effect in advancing the holy ordinances of Religion, are thus described:

'The pleasure, naturally arising from the contemplation of works of painting and the other imitative arts, a pleasure felt by, and common to, the people in common life, of all nations and characters, will of necessity find its vent in society in some channel or other. How many channels of public depravation are constantly opening, how many artifices of moral pollution are every hour put in practice and every moment kept in play, by profligate dexterity and mercenary cunning, need not be mentioned to any inhabitant of a metropolis. It cannot therefore be considered unworthy of a legislature, sedulously watchful of the morals of a great people, to assign a proper province for the gratification of this natural, and naturally innocent, pleasure, by means of such an institution as shall provide a safe and beneficial store of continual public amusement. The activity of desire, if not properly directed, must either idly dissipate itself in trifles and insipid vanity, or suffer perversion and depravation from the allurements of vice. The open avenues to the heart, if virtue and diligence are once suffered to be driven from their guard, will be quickly, although insensibly, filled with the wildest phantasms of indecent and tumultuous riot. Gross, debasing images of sensuality, rude chimeras of *civil disgust*, and deformities of political satire, will usurp the place due to the charms of chastened beauty and historic truth.

'The first effort towards the regular employment of the arts on great moral purposes, was made by the artists of the Royal Academy, and others, in an offer to contribute their gratuitous labours to the farther decoration of St. Paul's Cathedral, by presenting, each, a picture or sculpture of a religious description. The pious prelate, then bishop of the diocese, actuated no doubt by the most conscientious motives, esteemed it his duty to discourage such a design, and the proposal was accordingly dismissed.

'It was objected by the bishop, that the charms of painting were of a nature too seductive for his congregation, and that the forms and varied tints of beauty might divert their thoughts from heavenly to earthly objects, and excite emotions inconsistent with religion [*].'

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[*] 'I cannot wholly divest myself of surprise, that in a cultivated mind, whose professional studies had necessarily been so abstracted from all seductive objects of a sensual nature, the idea of *painting* should

Of the powerful effects of Painting on the mind, Horace remarks:

> " *Segnius irritant animos demissa per aurem,*
> *Quam quæ sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus, et quæ*
> *Ipse sibi tradit spectator.*"—

In the decoration of St. Paul's Cathedral with pictured representations of Gospel instruction, and typical calls to morality and to religion, veiled in the emphatic parables delivered by our Saviour, what a field is presented for a fair display of the exertions of the painter! It is said to have been the wish and at one time the *hope* of Sir Christopher Wren, that an appropriate monumental statue of himself, combined with decorative accompaniments, should rise from the centre of the pavement immediately under the Dome.—The four principal pannels of the piers which give it support were, as Mr. H. observes, proposed to have been painted gratuitously: but the metropolitan bishop Terrick, like another Spratt, refused admittance to the arts: and though the polished, the refined, the learned, and the philanthropic Lowth shortly afterward adorned the same ecclesiastical station, farther application ceased from Sir Joshua Reynolds, N. Dance, Mortimer, and others. Barry, when deserted and defeated in his efforts to serve his country, by adorning the church with the display of national talents in art worthy of its other high considerations, formed the resolution of making a similar *gratuitous* application to the members of the laudable Institution for the promotion of Arts, &c.; of the result of which we have already spoken.

In the second part of his Inquiry, Mr. H. proceeds to inform us of the benefits which the arts have derived from public exhibitions, and gives his opinion of the invigorating effect of the Royal Academy since its establishment:

'In England, they have greatly contributed to ripen the public judgment on all points of art, and appear to have had one very salutary consequence, that of diffusing a general desire (now first beginning to assume form and substance, and mixing with the wishes of the artists) to see the arts employed in a manner more worthy of their capacity and extensive powers. For it must be observed, that unless the objects exhibited be found adequate to the previous state of mind and consequent expectation of the beholder, little else than discontent can be the result; instead of pleasure smiling in the eye, and pride mantling to the heart, the weapons of critical animadver-

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should have been wholly confined to images of the kind just mentioned, and the art regarded only in the faculty which it possesses in common with all other attainments (whether of art or science), of contributing, *when improperly used,* to the corruption of mind.'

sion will soon sparkle in the hands of many who are bidden to the feast.

'This statement will probably suggest the cause of that fastidious sentiment so frequently displaying itself in the Exhibition room of Somerset-House. Since the commencement of those Exhibitions, an awakened public has formed higher conceptions of art, to which the *class* of works generally exhibited is not found to correspond.'

It will be conceded that Annual Exhibitions of the state of the Arts are not only partially salutary, but that the best effects connected with general improvement may be derived from them. We are told that similar customs prevailed in Greece, as occasions presented themselves, by exhibiting in the Portico: but in Greece the Arts were unshackled by established Institutions, which in modern times have so often proved only the nurseries of baneful influence. On this seemingly paradoxical point, we cannot better satisfy the curiosity of our readers, than by presenting to them the efficient causes in the words of a well-informed reporter:

> ——— "*Si le bien des arts nécessitait la déstruction des Académies, si vicieuses par leur organisation, leur progrès demandait aussi un moyen d'enseignement clair et facile, qui procurât à tous les Citoyens sans bourse les facilités de consulter les grand maitres; ces moyens d'étude se trouvent à faire dans un Musée.*" LENOIR.

In our own country, we admit that the number of Artists has increased since the establishment of a Royal Academy, but here we must stop; since it cannot be granted that improvement has kept proportionable pace. We refer our readers to [illegible] comparison between the past and the present catalogues, and to the productions of the past and the present exhibitors. We cannot forget that, at its commencement, it displayed the works of Hogarth in his peculiar style, of Reynolds and Gainsborough in portrait, and in history of Mortimer, Penny, Dance, and Joseph Wright (of Derby); of Wilson, the Seasons dancing their round to the lyre of Apollo, the Storm and distresses of Niobe and her unhappy offspring, and the villa of Cicero at Arpinum, where, in the shades of classic retirement amid torrents and romantic scenery, he points out to Atticus the oak planted by Marius; Barry's Adam beguiled by the temptation of Eve, Venus rising from the Sea, and Jupiter deluded by the charms of Juno, who had purposely visited Mount Ida;—the Phaeton of Stubbs; the captivating landscapes of Barrett and Gainsborough, Marlow's studies in Italy, with Tull's rural scenery; and a long list of others, of minor abilities. For productions of similar excellence, we have latterly sought in vain; and we see not, therefore, that annual improvement which should exemplify the advantages stated to exist in the Academy by the present eulogizing Secretary. Flattery, however gratifying to the objects which it addresses, ill becomes the pages of a publication purporting to be an *Inquiry*, and to contain statements deducible from such investigation.

In our list of the primitive exhibitors, we felt no ambition to avail ourselves of 'the honest accuracy of Highmore and Hudson, nor the classic correctness of Hoare;' and the names of Dance and Reynolds are insulted by any comparison with Battoni and Mengs, especially with the former, the very dreg of the dregs of impotent Art!—Neither is it advantageous to the honoured name of R. Wilson, that he should share the palm with Vernet and Zuccarelli; it would be equally odious to class together Raphael and Carlo Maratti, or Michael Angelo and Lémoin. Mr. H. makes judicious mention, however, of our countrymen Scott, Brookings, More, Hodges, Morland, Cozens, Girtin, and Thomas Sandby in landscape and in architecture. Many of these excelled in the management of tinted drawings, of which class of art it is but candid to mention that the venerable and very ingenious Paul Sandby is the father; yet this kind of performances ranks only in the Arts, as in literature the Pastoral may be compared with Epic Poetry.

To the scope of the *third Part* of Mr. Hoare's Inquiry, we have adverted in the earlier parts of this article; and it is farther connected with his Supplementary *Sketch of the present State of the Arts of Design in England*, which opens with some remarks that well illustrate the subject, and confirm our observations:

'The present moment is considered by artists as teeming with the crisis, not of their own destinies, but of the destiny of their Art in England. The accomplished artist, lately Professor of Painting in the Royal Academy, thus warmly expressed his thoughts, in his introductory lecture of last winter:

"The efficient cause, therefore, why higher art at present is sunk to such a state of inactivity and languor, that it may be doubted whether it will exist much longer, is not a particular one, which private patronage, or the will of an individual, however great, can remove, but a general cause founded on the bent, the manners, the habits, the modes of a nation; and not of one nation alone, but of all who at present pretend to cultivation.

"If the Arts are to rise and flourish, grandeur and beauty must animate the public taste, the artist must be occupied by significant, extensive, varied, important works. What right have we to expect such a revolution in our favour?

"We have now been in possession of an Academy for near half a century: all the intrinsic means of forming a style alternate at our command; professional instruction has never ceased to direct the student, and stimulate emulation; and stipends are granted to relieve the wants of genius, and to finish education by excursions to the former seats of Art. And what is the result? If we apply to our Exhibition, what does it present but a gorgeous display of great and athletic powers, condemned, if not to the beasts, at least to the dictates of fashion and vanity? what, therefore, can be urged against the conclusion, that the Arts are sinking, and threaten to sink still lower, from the want of a demand for great and significant works?"

Mr. Hoare's estimation of the powers of Sir Joshua Reynolds seems to us so justly appropriate, that we shall transcribe it in his own words:

'The historical efforts of Reynolds discover beautiful, but vague, combinations, and impressive, but desultory grandeur; these are germs of historic talent which, had they been matured by an earlier disposition of the nation to the encouragement of the Arts, would, no doubt, have risen to a much higher degree of excellence; at the same time it would partake of infatuated partiality, to assert, that the compositions or the conceptions of Reynolds would ever have equalled the Homeric poem of the Capella Sistina, or the no less Homeric drama of the Vatican.'

Of Hogarth, but one opinion can be entertained: a Phœnix in the Art which probably never before appeared in any country, he was in painting a moral satirist: not a painter 'of graphic comedy and farce,' as Mr. H. expresses it. We conceive that comedy had no farther existence in Hogarth's representations, than as a mere agent to convey to the mind those sublime moral truths, which appear to be the only objects of his endeavours in his particular line of Art. As Shakspeare wrote to the passions connected with moral sentiment, so did Hogarth paint for the instruction of every age, and "through the eye correct the heart." With these qualifications, and a few other exceptions, we admit the propriety of Mr. H.'s remarks:

'In subjects of sportive fancy, and in domestic or familiar history, the native and characteristic powers of our English painters have been chiefly shown. At the head of the latter class stands HOGARTH, a painter unequalled in the graphic Comedy, and Farce (if the term may be pardoned) of nature. His eulogy has been so often written, and lately so amply displayed by a learned and noble author, that it would be here superfluous; but it may be allowable to remark, that in the conspicuous prominence of the intellectual and moral properties of his art, in the wit, humour, and patriotism of his scenes, his powers in other professional points have been chiefly overlooked. The picture of the *Boys playing on the Tomb-stone*, at the same time that it lays claim to some of the highest moral historic merits, is an instance of the most skilful, and it may be added, *grand* composition. In the series of *Marriage à la Mode*, several of the subjects are painted with a breadth, force, and clearness of colour, which have seldom been surpassed; the *Breakfast Table* is the most striking instance of these merits.'

On the state of Sculpture, and the Artists who have contributed to its rise, with the exception of one name, we heartily concur in the sentiments of the author; and with the highest satisfaction we quote the following passage:

> 'Banks was among those who most zealously sought the enlargement of professional knowledge in the stores of Rome. A mind ardently roused to competition with the works of excellence which he beheld, and a hand trained from infancy to a ready expression of his conceptions, imparted to his productions an air of ancient art. He gave to his *Cupid* the softness of characteristic form, and spirit and manly energy to his *Caractacus*. But he returned to a country not yet capable of feeling his worth; the statue of Cupid which he brought home in 1779, found no purchaser, and he was induced, in 1781, to carry it to St. Petersburg, where it was bought by the Empress Catharine, and placed in the gardens of Czarsco-zelo. Banks did not remain at Rome late enough to witness the rising glories of Canova, the only sculptor who could then have contested the palm with him in Italy.
>
> 'Bacon's genius was of native growth; he traversed no distant regions for improvement of his art, but drew from the researches of others sufficient food for an active and ready fancy. His conceptions were quick and sparkling, his execution polished, and his whole work characteristically graceful. A *Britannia* brandishing her thunderbolt, and an *infant Orphan* imploring shelter for his shuddering frame, are alike the productions of graceful and tender feelings.'

The best specimen from Bacon's chisel, and an admirable specimen it is, was erected at the expence of the country to William Pitt the great Earl of Chatham, in Westminster Abbey. The design is chaste, classic, and sublime: but the materials are said to have been given to the sculptor by a celebrated dramatic author, which will be readily believed, since the generality of Bacon's compositions exhibit no features of learning, no fine powers of intellectual faculties, no display of genius curbed by science. His general style of composition, as in Guildhall, is divested equally of the pathos and of the sublime, which are so necessary to the decorous completion of monumental representations. Yet Bacon could not fail to satisfy the generality of observers, by his flowery wreaths and dimpled smiles, garbed in silks and sattins:

> " *Æmilium circa ludum faber imus et ungues*
> *Exprimet, et molles imitabitur ære capillos;*
> *Infelix operis summâ, quia ponere totum*
> *Nesciet.*" —— Hor. *de Arte Poet.*

Banks, with an uncommon discernment of all that constituted excellence in sculpture under the prosperous governments of

which have been recently placed in that edifice, and
which, considered as compositions, are indeed conte
From the want of a more efficient mode of proceedin
selection of designs for our public monuments, it is too
that we shall lose the advantages which might hence b
to our national character, and that they will be conve
a source only of wasteful expenditure and eventual c
So entirely have the ends and objects of those which ar
erected been overlooked by the persons under whose
they were ordered, that even the propriety of inscriptio
forgotten; and the only index to the very *names* of t
who fell in the service of their country, and to w
grateful country has devoted these monuments, is exh
the vergers in formidable charcoal! Is this omission in
avoid remarks similar to those of the judicious and re
dison? Had that elegant critic been alive to have obs
public Monument to General Wolfe, he would have pr
it not less a satire on the employers than a libel on pub
yet for this vile production was the model of Roubilliac
Nothing less will correct this evil than a general and c
dress to liberal artists of every description, who are qu
practise the imitative arts, from the managing comm
powered by the executive government to solicit the p
of designs; under the condition that each unsuccessf
date shall be handsomely remunerated, and that eac
so procured shall be publicly exhibited with free a
until the final decision takes place: —then, and not till
all suspicion of partiality subside. A few hundred po
expended would be money well bestowed, and might

With regard to Architecture, Mr. H. thus remarks:

> 'Although the consideration of the national importance of Architecture has not been made a part of the principal subject of the foregoing chapters, yet in a general view of the present state of the Arts in England, it cannot fail to demand an equal attention.
>
> 'The productions of Architecture are necessarily more obvious to general observation than those of the two former branches of art, but its progress is more difficult to be ascertained, on account of its multifarious operations, and of the great number of undefined degrees which it is capable of admitting both in works and artificers. The leading features by which it is to be distinguished in our country are few; the nature of our state, with regard to its financial regulations, renders the construction of great public edifices very rare in England. Projects are often discussed, and long deferred. Plans of a Residence for our Sovereign, and of a Senate-house for our Parliament, have been by turns proposed and neglected; new churches, and new mansions of our nobility, have been sufficiently numerous; but amongst our recent buildings nothing is yet to be seen resembling the "solemn temple," or "the gorgeous palace."'

Thus far we agree: but we cannot acquiesce in many assertions made in subsequent pages. We allow and join in all the praises bestowed on the public edifices of Blenheim, the Bridges of Westminster and Blackfriars, Newgate, and the late building in Oxford Street called the Pantheon; though why it was so named, we are at a loss to say.

Before undeniable praise is established respecting Somerset Place, be it noted that, in the designs and construction, every possible assistance from patronage, aided by the public purse supplied by a liberal Parliament, gave to Sir William Chambers opportunities rarely known in this country. The Bank affords a similar instance. The question is, whether Sir William Chambers, and others under nearly the same opportunities of following their own devices, have sufficiently availed themselves of every advantage that protection and accident flung in their way. Somerset House is composed of many imitations, and some not of the most approved examples: it is a jumble of the French and the Italian, the best parts being feeble imitations of Caprarola and the Papa Julia. As to the Bank, Goddess-like, it disdains comparison!

Mr. Hoare's comment on Inigo Jones having *introduced Palladio into England*, (as he is pleased to phrase it,) as well as Hogarth's opinion, is almost unworthy of any notice. Hogarth's remark relative to Palladio, as here quoted, is merely the sarcastic observation of a sensible and discriminating mind, that the best examples are liable to be abused in their application. The intelligent use, which Inigo Jones made of Palladio's works, will be readily seen by those who are qualified to decide on the

intrinsic merits of his celebrated labours; which will a
land as long as they shall be unmutilated by the numer
of prevailing fashionable novelty-mongers: who, under
tence of restoration, have obtruded their own false
taste, to the destruction of order and of whatever was
in the designs of our great countryman. Properly t
his works, the persons so employed must possess the
of his mind; a mind like that of Lord Burlington, hap
racterized by a noble author, whose writings we have h
sion both to censure and to commend:—" Never was p
and great wealth more generously and more judiciously
his enthusiasm for the works of Inigo Jones was so act
he repaired the church of Covent Garden because it was
duction of that great master."—Speaking of Chiswick
as an illustration of its then characteristic, the same
thor remarks, " the larger court dignified by pictures
dars, and the classic scenery of the small court that u
old and the new house, are more worth seeing than ma
ments of antient grandeur which our travellers visit u
the dangers attendant on long voyages."——The beau
pendage of the small court, worthy of the best times
rial Rome for its chastity of design and harmony of
tions, is alas! no more. The classical ideas of Lord Bu
which arose in his ennobled mind, enriched by study
tured by experience, have been superseded by a perso
competency and education are made manifest by the o
which he has been suffered to perform.

We turn from such sacrilegious improvements to the
of a venerable, lamented, admired, yet neglected Archi
virtuous Revett; whose education was learned and exte
Literature as well as in all that regards the culture of t
particularly Architecture, and whose knowlege was not
in Science. He was gifted also with many graceful,
and manly accomplishments; his modesty and integrity
ly to be exceeded by his intelligence; with his pursuit
lege, his mind imbibed the purest sentiments towards
and his pleasing and unaffected manners ensured univ
teem. He may be said to have given, in a great meas
profits and the fame of his labours to others; of w
publications of the Athenian and Ionian Antiquities are
rable examples. These drawings were made from accurate
surements, and are performances that have greatly con
to enrich our stock of information regarding the small
of Attic structures.—Revett was totally ignorant of those
tricks which are but too successfully practised in corr
ety: he contented himself with saying little and performin

Mr. Hoare's statement of Revett's labours is just, but by far too concise. We are of opinion also that the publication of Le Roy, though not worthy of the credit which should be given to several of Revett's admeasurements, deserved to have been mentioned in better terms than Mr. H. is inclined to bestow.—To Robert Adam, on the contrary, we think that he is too indulgent. No man, indeed, knew better than *he* did the advantages to be obtained by the introduction of novelty, which in his practice he endeavoured to realize; and he certainly was a man of genius, taste, and ready wit: but, granting that he effected some good in correcting a false and contemptible system, especially in the interior ornamental decorations of our buildings, he also did much harm by opening the door to every innovator, who may be deficient in that education which must qualify a real judge, and in Mr. Adam's powers of application.—Having closed his eulogium on our deliverers from a slavishness of taste in Architecture, Mr. H. thus mentions the name, and in his opinion the humble pretensions of William Kent: 'Something of a similar kind had been previously attempted by Kent, an artist of great celebrity, under the patronage of the Earl of Burlington, in the reign of George II. but the attempt was at best but feebly executed.' For this, thanks to Kent's better judgment. To the observation made by Mr. H. in the following sentence,—'Taste, however, unchecked by the existence of any great standards of art in this country, deviates hourly into numberless excentric paths, and our modes of building are now nearly as various as the humours of our minds,'—we call the fixed attention of the real lovers of Architecture; since it contains a confession, the influence which is absolutely necessary to the advancement of the science. To this wise precept, for which we have been advocating throughout the whole of our review, we consider Kent to have been particularly attentive; and for his judicious conduct we cannot withhold our tribute of respect. We see nothing of our modern vagaries in the Architecture of Raphael and of Angelo. We must think, however unfashionable may be the opinion, that the name of Kent should have occupied a more distinguished place in the pages of the volume before us; and that he should have been made a principal actor in the drama, instead of scene-shifter to Robert Adam, or any of Adam's cotemporaries. To the abilities of Kent, they and their country are much indebted for the examples which he left them in every department of the liberal arts; which he so successfully studied in Italy, and practised on his return, under the patronage of the Earl of Burlington. Painting, however, must be excepted; since in this branch we admit that his conceptions were very poor, and his

execution was equally bad. By his regulating standard
fixed the mark for a sure guidance to others in archite
and in landscape gardening, of a classical and very high
aided by enrichments of sculpture and other works of
which are requisite combinations to the completion of sple
and magnificence. Kent made his own designs, and his
drawings; his plans were well adapted to their several
poses; and a fitness and an unity pervaded the propor
of his apartments, which were impressively striking.
practised much in Architecture, and with deserved reputa
Among many others of his private buildings, we cannot
ticularize the façade of Devonshire House (towards Picca
without commending the dignified and unaffected simplicity,
the harmonious proportions of the individual parts, as we
the whole display of the court of approach and offices.

To conclude: we regard Mr. Hoare as intitled to the th
and commendation of all lovers of the Arts, for the pr
attempt to excite just attention to them, at a time whe
seems to consider that their situation in this country is
critical, and that they are in danger of perishing for
Ardently do we wish that his efforts may produce a bene
effect; and much are we inclined to applaud the salutary
and cautions which his work occasionally presents. It is
regret, however, that we feel persuaded, and that we
felt ourselves obliged in the course of this long article t
deavour to shew, that the work is not satisfactory nor co
sive; that many of the positions and deductions are m
theoretical; that it is not written with that boldness of in
tiality and scrupulous observance of justice, which its
and its object demanded: but that, on the contrary, it
too many respects calculated to promote the growth of fl
at the expence of fact; that some names have been pl
in too strong a light, and others have been kept too mu
the shade, in order to produce stage effect; and that,
gether, the performance is better calculated to please th
perficial observer, than to become a sure guide in the in
gation which it professes to assist.

An establishment of recent date in our metropolis, c
the British Institution, attracts much of Mr. Hoare's notice a
his praise. We should willingly befriend any aid affo
to the ostensible object of this Society: but its arrangem
are yet too incomplete and too mutable to be fairly op
decided approbation. The sale of performances alr
exhibited is a minor consideration. Let it afford to a
an opportunity of comparison with works that have s
the test of time and criticism, let a fair contention be

exc

ited, and much advancement in the arts may be the result.
Hoare, indeed, mixes with his encomiums some qualifying
tences and some admonitions; and these we seriously re-
mend to the patrons of the Institution.

T. XI. *History of Great Britain*, from the Revolution, 1688, to
he Conclusion of the Treaty of Amiens, 1802. By William
lsham. 12 Volumes. 8vo. 5l. 8s. Boards. R. Phillips.

British Public is no stranger to the general character-
istics of Mr. Belsham's History; which, as now before us,
is a regularly progressive work, but of which all the vo-
s, excepting the 11th and 12th, have been previously
ted in detached portions and in irregular chronological or-
. The same animated and glowing style, and the same popu-
rinciples and sentiments, which marked his preceding la-
will probably still attract the approbation of his admirers;
the exceptions which have been made against his pre-
ssions and his ardour will equally continue to be urged.
the friends to freedom both of principle and discussion,
like the opposers of intemperance either of conduct or of
age, we adverted in former articles to an occasional de-
of excess in Mr. Belsham's diction, which was little suit-
to the dignity of history. In the preface to his 11th vo-
, he enters into an explanation of this part of his con-
; and speaking of himself in the third person,

> ar be from him,' he says, 'that "frigid philosophy," which, in
> ng upon subjects the most interesting to the human welfare and
> iness, can satisfy itself with that sort of impartiality, or rather of
> ish insensibility, which confines its efforts and its object to a
> e and naked recital of facts, without adverting to principles, or
> e bearings and tendencies of different and opposite systems of
> . On the contrary, he has labored, invariably and assiduously,
> ulcate such principles and sentiments as have been proved by the
> ings of the ablest political writers, by the practice of the
> st statesmen, and by the uniform tenor of historical evidence, to
> the highest degree beneficial to mankind. For any occasional
> th of language, arising from this source, he trusts that the Pub-
> ll think an apology very unnecessary: and, on the calmest re-
> ction of his own views and motives, he has none to offer.'

admits, however, in the subsequent paragraph, as he
efore allowed in a letter which he addressed to us †, that
nimadversions were not without foundation:

See Rev. N. S. Vols. xiii. xvii. xxxiv. and xxvii.
† Ibid. Vol. xxxvii. N. S. p. 221.

‘ The critical reader will nevertheless find, that various
sions, bordering upon anger and asperity, are, in the latest ed
the preceding volumes of this history, altered and modified ;
those now offered to the Public, the author has been solicitou
transgress the limits of that freedom which is the inseparable
and characteristic of historical composition.’

In the additional volumes, which now form the on
ject of our notice, Mr. B. commences with the Ses
Parliament in 1798-9 ; and here the important event
Union with Ireland early attracts the notice of the his
On this topic, he is rather reserved, but on the wh
seems to approve the measure.——He is next cal
an event, the record of which, according to his detail
must indeed be unwelcome to British ears, since in it t
nour of Britain is declared to have received a foul an
stain ; we refer to the conduct adopted towards its
tionary subjects, by the imbecil and immoral court of N
to which the great Lord Nelson was a party. In m
the memoirs of our naval hero, we have already allu
these transactions : of which, until we are more fully inf
of them, we shall continue to speak in terms of reserve
their nature would not permit us to use, if we were de
convinced that the present representations of them admi
no material correction. We expect shortly to attend to ot
counts of this affair, and at present shall no farther ad
it than by quoting a part of Mr. Belsham's statement :

‘ The members of the Neapolitan government had taken p
of the two forts of the capital ; viz. Castel Nuovo and C
Uovo : as also of the Castelli-a-mare, six leagues from Naple
latter immediately capitulated, on terms of safety to the lives,
and property of the garrison, to the English squadron comma
commodore Foote. The capture of the two former was
with more difficulty. The patriots, who had at first taken t
lution of burying themselves under the ruins of their liberty,
with incredible valor. Feeling, however, on receiving a seco
mons of surrender, that, deprived of all external succour, the
tual resistance would serve only to increase the misfortunes
country, they at length decided on a treaty, in concert with
Mejan, commander of the fort of St. Elmo, garrisoned
French ; and a joint capitulation was accordingly signed, J
upon condition of their being allowed to march out with the h
war ; of security, both to persons and property, for all thos
two forts ; and liberty to all, either to remain at Naples, or
for France on board transports to be provided and equippe
Neapolitan majesty. The capitulation thus solemnly agreed
ratified by cardinal Ruffo, vicar-general of the king of t
Sicilies, by commodore Foote, and by the respective comma
the Russian and Turkish squadrons, the last of whom aff

mark and seal, consisting of a cimetar and half-moon. Hostages were, agreeably to the tenor of the treaty, delivered on the one side; and on the other, the prisoners of all descriptions were set at liberty.

'While the capitularies, to the number of about 1500, who had declared their intention of emigrating, were waiting for the vessels which were to convey them to France, lord Nelson arrived with his whole fleet in the bay of Naples, having on board the Anglo Neapolitan ambassador, sir William Hamilton, and his lady. On the evening of the 26th of June the patriots evacuated their forts, and embarked on board the transports prepared for them, and which were moored alongside the English fleet. On the next day the members of the executive commission, a great part of those of the legislative commission, the whole of the officers who had occupied the first ranks of the republic, and others who had been marked by the court of Sicily, were taken out of the transports, and carried on board the British admiral's own ship. Among these was the celebrated Dominico Cerilli, above thirty years the intimate friend of the English ambassador. On the deck of the admiral's ship stood sir William Hamilton and his lady, surveying, with curious attention, these devoted victims, bound hand and foot like the vilest criminals. After this review, these martyrs at the shrine of liberty were distributed among the different ships of the fleet. The remainder of the revolutionists were shut up in the dungeons of the castles which they had surrendered on the faith of the treaty.

'A few days subsequent to these transactions, the king of Naples, accompanied by his minister Acton, arrived from Palermo on board an English frigate. He immediately declared, by an edict, that it never was his intention to capitulate with *rebels*, and that consequently the fate of those who were in the transports, or in the forts, was to depend entirely upon his justice and clemency. And by a second edict the property of the patriots was put under sequestration. Against this procedure, remonstrances were in vain made by the commanders of the coalesced powers who had signed the articles of the capitulation.

'Wearied by the cruelties they suffered, and emboldened by the sanctity of the treaties so recently concluded, the prisoners on board the ships in the bay at length addressed a letter to admiral Nelson, in which they stated, in clear and specific terms, the conditions to which they were entitled. "After the arrival," say they, "of the British fleet in this road, commanded by your excellency, the capitulation was begun to be put in execution. The garrisons of the forts, on their part, set at liberty the state prisoners and the English prisoners of war, and gave up to the troops of his Britannic majesty the gate of the royal palace which leads to the new fort: and on the other side, the troops of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias attended the march of the garrison, with all the honors of war, out of the forts. It is now twenty-four days that we are lying in this road, unprovided with every thing necessary to existence. We have nothing but bread to eat; we drink nothing but putrid water, or wine mingled with sea-water; and we have nothing but the bare planks to sleep on. Our houses have been entirely pillaged, and the greater part of our relations either imprisoned or massacred. We are persuaded that all the treatment which we suffer, after having capitulated, and after having on our side put the articles of the capitulation religiously into execution, is entirely unknown to your excellency, and to his Sicilian majesty, your fidelity and his benevolence being engaged in our deliverance. The delay of the execution of the capitulation gives us room to claim and implore his and your justice, in order that a treaty concluded with four of the most civilised powers of Europe, who have always appreciated the inviolability of treaties, should be executed as speedily as possible. We hope that, by means of your good offices with his Sicilian majesty, due execution will be given to the articles of a capitulation which has been signed with good faith, and religiously fulfilled on the part of the garrison." The answer of lord Nelson to this moving address will be for ever memorable in history. "I have," said this renowned hero, "shown your paper to your *gracious* king, who must be the best and only judge of the merits and demerits of his subjects." What! was the king of Naples the only judge whether the articles of a treaty, to the strict observance of which the faith and honor of Britain were irrevocably engaged, should, or should not, be carried into execution? Could so monstrous a proposition be advanced with seriousness, or heard without scorn and amazement?

'After the surrender of the fort Castell-a-mare, commodore Foote had shown the most anxious solicitude that the conditions granted to the garrison should be punctually performed. "I entreat you," said this gallant officer to the commander of the fortress for the king of Naples, who had, as it appears, detained some effects belonging to the officers of the garrison, "to observe, that I am highly interested in seeing these gentlemen satisfied; since such is the condition of the capitulation: which is necessarily sacred." The whole body of Neapolitan revolutionists being thus consigned to remediless ruin, by the British admiral, in open, and almost avowed, violation of the faith of Britain, solemnly and publicly pledged, a horrible scene commenced; of which the view, and even the relation, might suffice to rouse the most insensible to indignation, to melt the most obdurate to pity.'

With these proceedings, the author is gratified in contrasting the humane and honorable behaviour of a gallant British officer, the companion and esteemed friend of Nelson, on a scene not very distant from that of which we have been speaking, viz. the conduct of Captain Trowbridge, on the occasion of the surrender of Rome to the British naval force:

'It was determined to enter into a negotiation with the English, who proposed the same capitulation as had taken place at Gaeta. The British squadron was under the direction of commodore Trowbridge; an officer of the highest reputation. In consequence of the positive instructions he received from Naples, the British commander was obliged to make a formal demand of the French governor, to deliver up the Neapolitan patriots who had fled for refuge to Rome. General Garnier nobly answered, "that he would never consent to an action so unworthy; but that the French would rather sacrifice their own lives with those of their friends."'

'The first name on the fatal list happened to be that of the princess de Belmonte: and when the determination of the French commandant was made known to the commodore, he is said to have signified very intelligibly his high approbation of it. He knew what had passed at Naples. He felt how paramount to all orders or instructions, was the honor and dignity of a British soldier. "I never will become the executioner of the vengeance of the queen of Naples!" was the indignant declaration of this gallant officer. This being perfectly understood, a capitulation was signed 6th Vendemiaire, (Sept. 27); conformably to the articles of which, ROME and its dependencies, for the first time since the foundation of that famous capital of the world, surrendered to the arms of BRITAIN:—an event than which, had the awful book of destiny been laid open to the view of the Julian or Augustan age, nothing more calculated to excite amazement could have occurred in all its records.

'The twelfth and other concurrent articles of the treaty of capi-ulation imported that "such citizens of Rome as shall now form, r have heretofore formed, a part of the constituted authorities of he Roman republic; and *those also* who shall have served the repub-ican cause by their patriotic works, or taken up arms for that pur-ose, shall be at liberty to depart with their property at the same ime with the French troops, and on the same terms as they do." nd by other articles it was agreed, "that transports should be pro-ided by the English commander, and victualled, for the conveyance f the above descriptions of persons to Villa Franca, Antibes, or oulon; and that such Romans as choose to remain, shall suffer no olestation." The last article even expressly stipulates, "in case of y difficulty arising with respect to the interpretation of the articles this convention, that such articles shall be explained in favor of French and their allies."

' During the transient existence of the Neapolitan republic, the ce of Cansano had been sent as ambassador to Rome, and many er Neapolitans of high rank were also resident in that city at the iod of its investment. Even previous to its surrender, the English mander took an anxious interest in the fate of these unfortunate es. He precipitated their departure from the port of Civita Vec-a; and, on their being unavoidably forced back to that place, modore Trowbridge, inflexible in his humanity, again enabled vessel to put to sea, and the proscribed fugitives were at length pily landed at Toulon. In return, they paid him—and it was all y could pay—those grateful tears of admiration which are shed noble deeds. Thus the honor of the British name was vindicat-and the world, as in other and better times, saw that it did not out reason aspire to a rivalship with that of ancient Rome.'

n relating the Siege of Acre, Mr. B. makes some just obser-ons on the singularity of the contest, especially on the cir-stance of British Christian Knights fighting in defence of Turkish Infidels. To the account of Bonaparte's having

massacred the Turkish prisoners taken at Jaffa, he giv
credit: but to that of the poisoning of the French whc
sick in the Hospitals, he thinks that no belief is due.

Throughout these volumes, the writer has depicted
parte in colours much more favourable than those in whi
apprehend he would now represent him. Historians,
they describe living personages, ought to bear in mi
famed answer of Nero to the Roman senate in his good
"*quum meruero.*"—How pleasing is it to be called a m
from contemplating this restless Despot, to view a ch
which united all that was great and good in our natur
mean that most enviable and greatest of his cotempo
George Washington. We think that Mr. Belsham is
cautious in his praise of this renowned patriot th
should have been: we cannot admit that 'Wash
was better adapted to defensive than offensive war:' the
of Trentham, and the catastrophe at York town, ill
with the supposition; and we are not aware of the gı
which warrant him in limiting 'his reach of penetratic
ardour of enterprize.' Let his slender means be consi
and his atchievements be set against them, and we sh
sensible that no mind was ever more indebted to its ov
sources, nor any man ever victorious over greater difficu

Mr. Belsham has inserted an elaborate narrative of tl
of the Mysore: which is highly favourable to the late (
nor-General, Lord Wellesley.

The memorable speech of Mr. Pitt, in the parliam
discussion occasioned by the pacific overture of Bon
when he attained the consulship, is here severely crit
The ability displayed in it was universally admitted
time, but it was considered more as a display of orator
as a correct statement of facts. Nearly three years had e
since the termination of the iniquitous and treacherous
of Bonaparte in Italy; yet in all that time British subj
general had received no other accounts of it than such
ceeded from revolutionary authors; the harangue o

which it deserved. That Mr. Belsham should have been ignorant of these matters, at the time of writing this history, is to us a matter of some surprize.

On the subject of the dispute with the Northern powers, in regard to belligerent and neutral rights, the question is very fairly and intelligibly stated by Mr. Belsham: but we by no means concur in the violent and unqualified censure which he pronounces on the measures then adopted. It must be allowed that, if England had been imperious, the neutrals had acted fraudulently to a prodigious extent. The author lays great stress on the universal consent given to the principles of the armed neutrality: but it will be seen that the parties were all either weaker belligerents, or interested neutrals. He fairly admits, however, that this consent is not binding on England; and that she has still the right of asserting the former principle, even at the hazard of war. It is to this point that the question ultimately resolves itself. If neutral privileges are pushed so far as to operate as succour to an enemy, a belligerent has undoubtedly the right *by violent means* of putting a stop to the intercourse, if that power deems it expedient to proceed such lengths.

In treating of the scarcity of provisions in this country, Mr. Belsham displays much information and truly enlightened views. The conduct of the chief magistrate of the metropolis in that difficult crisis was universally applauded; and Mr. B. describes it with due praise.

Considerable discrimination and ability are also manifested by the historian, in examining the several steps of the negotiation which ended in the peace of Amiens. Its authors had the countenance of the greatest names on that occasion: but this circumstance does not prevent Mr. B. from representing in a just light the weak parts of the transaction.

Though in these volumes Mr. Belsham may have been more sparing of harsh terms than in the preceding portions of his history, some have still escaped him which had better have been omitted. Altogether, we meet with nothing in these concluding pages, which calls on us either to add to or alter the observations which we have on former occasions applied to the work. If its auhor be too much the partisan, we cannot overlook that he is the supporter and follower of that denomination of Englishmen, under whose administration the country has ever most flourished; and who have cherished and protected those principles, to which it owes its pre-eminence among nations, and all its choicest blessings of society.

MONTHLY CATALO

For FEBRUARY, 1807.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 12. *An Answer to Dr. Moseley, containing a Defence* *tion*. By John Ring, Member of the Royal College of and of the Medical Societies of London and Paris. 8vo 6s. Boards. Murray.

Mr. Ring, who has proved himself one of the most zea cates of vaccination, here undertakes to repel the violen Dr. Moseley, by turning the weapons of his antagonist ag self, and assailing him with that species of declamatory occupies so large a part of the doctor's own pages. He ha been in some degree successful, and has occasionally made *hits*: but, on the whole, we cannot commend this method o ing a controversy, even when it may be justified by the pre rages of the enemy.

This volume is not, however, deficient in valuable matte ferent kind. We have been amused with the account whi of the opposition manifested by some individuals, against pox inoculation, at its first introduction into this country: occasion, the noted Sir Richard Blackmore was particula nent, aided by Mr. Tanner, one of the surgeons of St. hospital. They asserted that the preventative power of i was contrary both to reason and experience, and that mo occurred after the operation, than from the disease in its nat and they boldly accused those persons of falsehood who m the contrary opinion. Some extracts are also given from preached by a Mr. Massey, in 1722, in which he proceed most abusive strain, to declaim against the crime of inocula endeavoured to prove that the small-pox was the disease w Job was afflicted, and that the Devil was the inoculator; terward seriously laid it down as a principle, that it is impi tempt to alleviate or remove any of the disorders which are God to afflict mankind. Even so late as the middle of the tury, a cry was raised against inoculation, by two physicia siderable eminence; who adduced many instances of its fa of the evils which ensued from it.—From these documents, of vaccination will perceive that their predecessors had to at least an equal share of prejudice and illiberality with th

Mr. Ring then proceeds to examine the value of the which has been cited by Dr. Moseley against the vaccinat he particularly adverts to the case related by Dr. John which a person received the small-pox who was said to h ously been twice affected with the casual cow pox. The w pamphlet of Mr. Goldson is also noticed; and the case of a Mr. Bowen, who, after several unsuccessful attempts at inoculation subsequently to vaccination, became at length On these and other similar occurrences, Mr. Ring offers of judicious observations, and displays considerable address in obtaining an authentic statement of the transactions. In some instances, he has it in his power to shew that Dr. Moseley's account is completely erroneous, and in others that it is essentially defective. Altogether, we think that Mr. Ring's performance possesses considerable merit: but we should have bestowed on it more unqualified commendation, had it less resembled the work of Dr. Moseley.

Art. 13. *Observations on Vaccine Inoculation;* tending to confute the Opinion of Dr. Rowley and others. By Henry Fraser, M.D. &c. 8vo. 2s. Highley.

We heartily commend the zeal which Dr. Fraser displays, but we are sorry that we cannot bestow equal praise on the execution of his design. We are indeed obliged to acknowlege that this tract appears to us remarkable solely for a pompous style, which is altogether inconsistent with its subject. The only part of the pamphlet which can be considered as interesting is the attempt to prove that the cow-pox does not originate from the grease of the horse: he animadverts with some severity on the conduct of Dr. Jenner in adopting this idea; and he considers it to have been one of the principal obstacles to the general diffusion of the practice of vaccination.

Art. 14. *Vaccinæ Vindiciæ*; or, Vindication of the Cow-pox: containing a Refutation of the Cases and Reasonings on the same, in Dr. Rowley's late extraordinary Pamphlet against Vaccination, in Letters to Dr. Moseley, by Robert John Thornton, M.D. &c. Nos. 1. and 2. 8vo. 1s. 6d. each. Symonds.

These two numbers form the commencement of a monthly publication, written by Dr. Thornton, the object of which is to counteract the unfavorable impression produced on the public mind by Drs. Rowley and Moseley respecting the cow-pox. After having pointed out some of the extravagant and indecorous sentiments advanced by these writers, particularly the former of them, Dr. T. proves, in opposition to their positive assertion, that the Jennerian society has taken every possible pains to investigate the supposed cases of failure. A committee of 25 practitioners was formed for this express purpose; and from a very judicious report which they published, and which is inserted in the work before us, it appears that they executed their office with diligence and fidelity.

Dr. Thornton enters on the important task of examining the adverse cases of Dr. Rowley and the other opposers of vaccination. He selects some of those to which the greatest credit has been attached, and which have produced the most effect on the public mind; and, by referring to the practitioners who performed the inoculation, and who saw the cases during their progress, he has shewn, in the most satisfactory manner, that the statements published by Drs. Rowley and Moseley are defective in the most essential particulars, and that some of them are altogether without foundation.—As friends of truth and humanity, we feel greatly obliged to Dr. Thornton for the zeal and perseverance which he has exercised on this subject. In the title, Dr. T. writes *Vindicia*, instead of *Vindiciæ*.

Art. 15. *Cow-Pock Inoculation vindicated and recommended*
ters of Fact. By Rowland Hill, A.M. 12mo. 1s. D
Harvey.

The reverend author of this pamphlet is well known to
one of the most zealous advocates for vaccination, and, u
gentlemen of his profession, he has added knowlege to
Before he ventured to enter on the practice, he adopted
sible means of acquiring all the necessary information on t
and the pages before us afford a sufficient proof that his
were successful. The tract is principally designed for the
the unprofessional, for which purpose it is well adapted b
style and familiar modes of illustration. It furnishes, how
piece of information which must be interesting to every des
readers; viz. the following account of Mr. Hill's own suc
practice; 'I solemnly assert that, having inoculated in
places not less (*fewer*' that 4840 subjects, independent of
upwards who have been inoculated at Surrey Chapel Scho
I have not, as yet, met with *one single failure*; though, on
tion of my visits, I have at all times made it a point to in
the utmost diligence in my power; nor yet, in any one poi
have I seen any of those distreasful consequences that
brought forward with so much *art* and downright *falsehood*,
the fears and terrify the imaginations of the public.'

We sincerely hope that this little work will have an ext
culation; since by this means the benevolent views of i
cannot fail to be materially promoted.

Art. 16. *Vaccination vindicated from Misrepresentation an*
in a Letter to his Patients, by Edward Jones, Mem
Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

Mr. Jones's principal object is to refute the opinions of
rel; whose positions are so extraordinary, and indeed so re
every feeling of common sense, that we were inclined to qu
propriety of making them the subject of a formal reply.
however, it may be better not to let any publication,
ever so contemptible, pass entirely without notice; especi
the opinions are advanced with so much confidence as in t
Dr. Squirrel. The present pamphlet forms a satisfactory
that of the author's opponent.

Art. 17. *A Reply to the Anti-Vaccinists*, by James Moore
of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo.
ray. 1806.

We think that this is decidedly the best treatise which h
ed in the course of the controversy; it is candid, judi
spirited. Without giving too much consequence to the
of vaccination, the author fairly states the nature of their
and without descending to any harshness or abuse, he fu
them. He justly observes that those who now oppose
with the greatest confidence to the cow-pox are the least a
an accurate judgment on the question, because they mad
minds against it from the time of its being first proposed t

lic, and before they had themselves tried its effects or seen it tried by others. He points out, and happily combats, the hypothetical objections employed by Dr. Moseley and his coadjutors, derived from what they call the bestial origin of the disease; and he counteracts, with equal effect, the unfavorable reports that have been so industriously circulated, respecting the complaints said to be left in the system after vaccine inoculation.

Mr. M.'s remarks on medical evidence in general are highly judicious, and cannot be too forcibly impressed on the mind:

'The evidence that is requisite to prove or disprove any proposition in the science of medicine, is of a peculiar kind. It differs entirely from that species of proof which satisfies a Court of Law. Both direct and circumstantial evidence, which would leave no doubt in the breasts of judges and juries, have often not the slightest tendency to render a medical fact even probable. The declarations, and even the oaths of the most conscientious, disinterested, and able men are all insufficient.

'The reason of this is, that few men, even those of considerable capacity, distinguish accurately between opinion and fact.

'When a man asserts he has been cured of a particular disease by a certain drug, he is apt to think he is declaring a fact, which he knows to be true; whereas this assertion includes two opinions, in both of which he may be completely mistaken. The first is an opinion of his having had the disease specified; the second, that the medicine employed removed the disease.'

These observations apply to the case in question in a very particular manner; since it appears, by the confession of Dr. Rowley himself, that this great champion of anti-vaccination was, in all instances of apparent failure, satisfied with the mere assertion of the party concerned; and, without any farther investigation, immediately set down such occurrences in his list of unfavorable cases.—We shall not extend our remarks on this pamphlet, but earnestly recommend it not only to every medical man, but to every person who feels interested in the welfare of his fellow creatures.

Art. 18. *The Evidence at large, as laid before the Committee of the House of Commons*, respecting Dr. Jenner's Discovery of Vaccine Inoculation; together with the Debate which followed; and some Observations on the contravening Evidence, &c. By the Rev. G. C. Jenner. 8vo. pp 240. 6s. Boards. Murray.

Although the principal contents of this volume have already been made known to the world in different ways, we are glad to see them collected and published under their present form. The evidence delivered to parliament on the subject of the cow pox is so clear and decisive, and embraces a question of so much moment, that it cannot be too widely circulated, nor too frequently impressed on the minds of the inhabitants of these kingdoms. This is rendered still more necessary in consequence of the objections that have lately been started against vaccination; objections which, however futile, have not failed to make an unfavourable impression, and appear to have had the effect of impeding the progress of this most valuable disco-

very. The Committee of the House of Commons manifeste
wisdom, not less than their candor, in bringing forwards all
dence that was to be obtained against the claims of the peti
and the imperfect and confused statements, which were delive
the opposers of vaccination, afford one of the most powerful
of the strength of the cause. Perhaps on no subject, either sc
or medical, was so large a weight of authority ever adduced,
little thrown into the opposite scale.

Art. 19. *A Dissertation on Ischias*; or the Disease of the Hi
commonly called a Hip Case; and on the Use of the Bat
ters as a Remedy in this Complaint. By William Falconer,
F R.S. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

This treatise is a re-publication of Dr Falconer's paper inse
the 6th volume of the Memoirs of the Medical Society; and v
therefore only to refer to p. 145. of this Number of the M.
an account of its merits.

EDUCATION.

Art. 20. *A Complete Analysis of the German Language:*
Philological and Grammatical View of its Construction,
logies, and various Properties. By Dr. Render. 8vo. I
Symonds.

Dr. Render begins his preface by remarking: 'It will not, p
be thought too harsh, if I assert, that the greater part of C
grammars hitherto published have been the offspring of nec
a circumstance which, while it accounts for their defects, ce
offers no extenuation for them; nor can the warmest philan
even wish that mankind should be misled, merely to give subs
to the propagator of error.' Without inquiring into the jus
this observation, we feel ourselves obliged to add the present A
to the number of those children of necessity, or to assign it
ence to an equally unkind mother of literary productions
it is merely a hasty and inaccurate compilation, without philos
arrangement or new remarks, too minute for the first beginne
too trifling and unsatisfactory for the more advanced student
R. has also been guilty of the grossest plagiarism, without m
ing the source from which he has drawn his best materials.
whole pages have been copied, some word for word, othe
mutilated state, from Noehden's grammar; and on several oc
the reader is misled by rules being given as general which ough
only partially applied. The work is swelled by several extract
Schiller and other German authors, to which a free transla
subjoined.

Art. 21. *An Epitome of Scripture History:* chiefly abstracte
Dr. Watts's short View, &c. 18mo. pp. 323. 4s. I
Darton and Harvey.

The juvenile reader is here furnished with an account of th
cipal events recorded in the Old and New Testament, judi
abridged, and forming a good compendium of sacred history.
style is perspicuous and attractive, and likely to fix in the me

of juvenile readers the events which it is the design of the work to record. A number of plates are introduced.

Art. 22. *A Visit to London*, containing a description of the Principal Curiosities in the British Metropolis. By S.W. author of a Visit to a Farm House, and the Puzzle for a Curious Girl. 18mo. pp 192. 2s. Tabart and Co.

It is the object of this tract to give a familiar description of London, and to introduce occasionally such moral reflections as presented themselves out of the circumstances of the narrative. To those young persons, therefore, who may wish to have a concise account of the *Metropolis*, written in easy language, and which blends entertainment with moral instruction, this little volume will be an acceptable present.

Art. 23. *The Book of Trades*, or, Library of useful Arts. 18mo. 3 Vols. 9s. Half Bound. Tabart and Co.

This work contains a brief report of most of the arts and trades, which conduce to the supply of the necessities and conveniencies of life, adapted to the use of young persons; and as well on account of its imparting to them useful knowlege, as from its furnishing those who are to subsist by their industry with hints for fixing on the employments most congenial to their taste, we think that it is a commendable addition to the juvenile library. The subjects, which are illustrated by characteristic Plates, are sixty in number; and though, since they are so numerous, complete information cannot be expected, sufficient is given to awaken the curiosity of young minds, and to induce them to make farther inquiries respecting the objects in which they may be most interested.

Art. 24. *Elements of useful Knowlege, in Geography, History, and other Sciences:* drawn up for the use of Children in questions and answers. By J. Allbut, Master of Bromsgrove-Lickey School. 12mo. 10 Numbers, price 4d. each. Button and Co.

Geography, Astronomy, Natural Philosophy, History, Chronology, Grammar, and Arithmetic, are the topics here treated. The compilement is intended as an introductory book for children, and, being written in a catechetical form, it may help to fix in their memories the first rudiments of science.

Art. 25. *Le Nouveau La Bruyère;* The New La Bruyère, or, The Well Educated Children. By Peter Blanchard. 2 Vols. 18mo. Didier and Tebbett.

Mr. Blanchard here supplies lessons for teaching young persons to conduct themselves through life. The subject is divided into three parts, on the duties of Morality, Virtue, and Civility: those of the first, according to the author, include the duties only which justice requires; those of the second, all benevolent and disinterested actions; and those of the third comprehend the proper manner in which the several duties are to be performed. The work consists of dialogues between a father and his son and daughter; and considerable pains are taken, by placing the subjects in various lights, to bring them to the comprehension of juvenile understandings. To those young persons who wish to exercise themselves in reading French, the perusal of these little volumes will be particularly useful, as not on[illegible] enabling them to improve themselves in the language, but also gi[illegible]ing them valuable rules concerning propriety of conduct. They [illegible] neatly printed, and ornamented with copper-plate engravings.

Art. 26 *An Essay on the Elements, Accents, and Prosody of [illegible] English Language*; intended to have been printed as an In[illegible]duction to Mr. Boucher's Supplement of Johnson's Dictio[illegible] By Jonathan Odell, M.A. 12mo. pp. 205. 4s. 6d. Bo[illegible] Lackington and Co. 1806.

In this Essay, Mr. Odell professes to correct the mistakes in[illegible] which Sheridan, Walker, and others have fallen respecting the su[illegible]jects mentioned in the title. To have just notions of these mat[illegible] is of considerable importance, and the public is indebted to [illegible] author for the pains which he has taken respecting them. In th[illegible] number and distribution of the letters on articulate sounds, he differs from former writers; our letters, according to him, ought to represent the several sounds expressed in the language, and should be twenty-nine; of these, seven are vowels, twenty-one are consonants, and the aspirate *h*; to these he adds the lengthened sounds of six vowels, but proposes that they should be represented by a mark over the short vowels. Our diphthongs, he asserts, are sixteen in number, and the triphthongs three. As the just representation of sounds by letters is a considerable means of attaining a correct pronunciation of the language, these are particulars worthy of attention.

In the portion of the work allotted to the *Accents*, the author deprecates the common use of that word, in lieu of which he proposes the *syllabic emphasis*. The accents, he contends, signify the variations with which all syllables are pronounced, and are as commonly used, and as necessary in the proper pronunciation of the English, as they were in that of the Greek and Latin. In this opinion, he follows Mr. Steele, who proved the fact by imitating on a violoncello the tones of our common speech, and ascertained their perfect agreement with the Greek definitions and descriptions of the tones or accents used in uttering that language.

Respecting *Prosody*, Mr. Odell asserts, contrary to the opinion of antient and modern grammarians, that the essence of verse, or the governing principle of rhythm, is not to be found in the length of syllables, but only in their emphases; and he maintains his assertion by shewing that short vowels in the Greek and Latin languages, when before two consonants, or as it is called *in position*, although accordingly accentuated long, were in reality still pronounced short. In the scanning of verse, he therefore contends for the using of cadences instead of feet, making the emphatic syllable the first in every cadence. Our Iambic verse, he says, is of various dimensions, from two to six cadences; in which not only Pyrrhics, but spondees, dactyls, and double pyrrhics also are equalised with the leading Iambic feet, and sometimes a single syllable is made to fill a whole cadence. Hence in our common heroic measure we have three different metres, in lines consisting of three, four, or five cadences, exclusive of the occasional Al[illegible], or six.

To shew that the antient mode of versification is not impracticable in the English language, the author, in the translation of a Sapphic ode, has given a specimen of the Sapphic verse; also imitations of the versification of two odes of Horace, and specimens of the Homeric rhythmus, which was thought to be inexpressible in English, in the translation of the first 53 verses of Homer's Iliad.

In the prosecution of this work, Mr. Odell has evinced considerable learning and talents: but he professes it to be only an essay, and wishes that some other person better qualified would undertake the subject. It is certainly both curious and important, and it would give us great satisfaction to see it thoroughly investigated. Mr. Odell has meritoriously commenced the discussion, and we should recommend it to him to pursue it.

POETRY.

Art. 27. *The Age of Frivolity.* A Poem, addressed to the Fashionable, the Busy, and the Religious World. By Timothy Touch'em. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Williams and Smith. 1807.

No, *Timothy*! indeed you will not *Touch'em*; unless it be to *tickle* them with laughter at your ineffectual attempts to be *cuttingly satirical*. The toll-keepers will not receive a penny less, nor will the Sunday Ordinary lose a single visitor, by your representation of the Cockney's mode of spending the Sabbath:

> 'Forth from their haunts, array'd in Sunday-dress,
> Through ev'ry avenue the thousands press;
> Some, in equestrian pomp, bestride the backs
> Of broken kneed or broken-winded hacks;
> While through each turnpike a long train departs
> Of coaches, gigs, and curricles, and carts;
> Where closely wedg'd, and jostling side by side,
> The swelt'ring gentry take their Sunday ride,
> Impatient longing for the cheap regale
> Of village beef and pudding, punch and ale;
> Where, round the common table, strangers join,
> Once in a week, like gentlefolks to dine.
> Thither, a few short miles, impell'd along
> By many a fretful stamp and lashing thong,
> With feeble steps the jaded cattle creep,
> And their sad day of rest in labour keep.'

As little will *Fashionable Invalids* be benefited by Mr. Touch'em's languid and sickly satire:

> 'Sweet summer smiles, and on its balmy wings
> Delightful health and rich abundance brings;
> All feel its influence, hope and joy distil,
> Save Pleasure's train—and they, poor things! are ill.
> They have the megrims, vapours, or the spleen;
> They are so nervous, grew so pale and lean;

They have a sort of something, somehow got,
Have so much suffer'd from they know not what,
That they must haste to catch the sea side air,
Just when and where such *invalids* repair.
There Pleasure waits, their doctor and their nurse,
To *fill* their time up, and to *drain* their purse.
Now all alert, most rapidly they mend,
Ere mirth grows stale—while money lasts to spend.'

Mr. Touch'em seems to be perfectly satisfied with himself, or otherwise he could not have encouraged his rhyming diarrhœa. He modestly indeed prays, in the motto, to be saved "on the *brink* of writing ill:" but we are sorry to inform him that he has completely *tumbled in, head over heels*.

Art. 28. *Three Lyric Odes*, on late celebrated Occasions. By the Rev. William Clubbe, Vicar of Brandeston. 4to. 2s. 6d. Printed at Ipswich.

The first of these odes is devoted to the Victory of the Nile in 1798, the second to the Battle of Trafalgar, and the third is intitled 'Harmony,' addressed 'to Britannia.' So much has been written by various bards on the subjects of the first two of these short odes, that Mr. Clubbe cannot be supposed to have furnished any new idea; but the following stanza on the death of Nelson is well expressed;

' Who but must see with delug'd eye
The matchless Victor of the Main
Upon his native shore again
Of his own victory the victim lie!
Of Heaven perhaps too much we crave
To grant us conquest and our conquerors save.'

In the last ode, the poet, invoking Harmony, calls her 'the choicest gift the *Gods* bestow:' but, however classical polytheism may be, we cannot allow it to be orthodox in a christian divine to avail himself, even in the character of a poet, of the assistance of the Gods.—He reminds his countrymen of the success of a few united Greeks against the vast host of the Persian monarch; and, conceiving that the abilities of Britons, both in the Senate and in the Field, are not inferior to those of the sons of antient Greece, he pronounces that nothing is wanting except *Unanimity* to insure our triumph;

' And doth not Albion boast on land
The valour of the Spartan band?
Doth she not count upon her seas
The equals of Themistocles?
In wisdom do her Statesmen yield
To Grecian Senators the field?
For patriot spirit, is her name
Eclips'd by aught of ancient fame?
Whate'er was valiant, wise or great
In Greece, adorns the British State.

'Blest Harmony! such powers unite
Alike in council and in fight;
And soon a Xerxes shall again
Quit in his fishing boat the main;
And lonely wand'ring on the shore
His ruin'd armaments deplore.'

Britannia must hold her head high on this representation of the poet; and, after such a comparison, can her sons despair?

Art. 29. *Poetry, Odes, Prologues, and Epilogues spoken on Public Occasions at Reading School:* to which is added some Account of the Lives of the Rev Mr. Benwell, and the Rev. Dr. Butt. 8vo. pp. 264. 7s. Boards. Richardson.

'This Collection,' as the preface states, 'consists of Poems spoken at Reading School, since the accession of the present Master in 1781, and is published at the desire of the speakers, who cast a pleasing recollection on those exhibitions which have formed a part of their amusement and insruction.' The writers of the principal part of these poems were the late Mr. Benwell, and the late Dr. Butt; the others named are Mr. Bolland, the late Mr. Seward, and Mr. Pye. The compositions, several of which are in Latin, have various merit, some of them evincing the juvenile age of the writers, while others would do credit to more matured authors. Dr. Valpy seems to have taken great pains with his pupils, and the publication must add to the repute of his seminary.

The life of Mr. Benwell is composed by the Rev. Mr. Kett, and that of Dr. Butt by the editor (Dr. Valpy): to the friends and acquaintance of those amiable and accomplished characters, this part of the work will prove peculiarly interesting, and even the indifferent reader will find himself improved in the perusal of it: the accounts are ably written.

Art. 30. *Hymns by the late Rev. Joseph Grigg.* 12mo. 6d. Rivingtons, &c.

We knew the merit and the abilities of Mr. Grigg: but they consisted not in the powers of versification. The appearance of these Hymns will prove this fact in a way which the friends of Mr. G. will not hail with satisfaction; and had they been worth publishing, the meanness of their present garb would have equally displeased them.

NOVEL.

Art. 31. *Memoirs of Bryan Perdue.* By Thomas Holcroft. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It is stated by Mr. Holcroft, in the preface to these volumes, that his object in writing novels has always been to advance some moral purpose: that his *Anna St Ives* was designed to teach fortitude to females, his *Hugh Trevor* to induce youth to inquire into the morality of a profession before they adopted it for their course in life, and that of the present work to inculcate on legislators and others a consideration of the value of human life, and the moral tendency of our penal laws. For this purpose he depicts a young man of considerable intellectual endowments, but of unrestrained passions ; occasionally commits both good and evil actions ; who is finally gi of a crime that puts his life in danger, but is rescued on a poir law ; and who subsequently reforms, and makes amends to mani for his past misconduct

Mr. Holcroft's strong manner of writing, in compositions of nature, and the peculiarity of some of his opinions respecting er or crimes and punishments, are well known to the public. The before us displays both these characteristics of his pen ; and we tl that it will interest generally, please in many parts, and offend in so against the vice of gambling in particular, it furnishes many stri admonitions. With regard to the general theory respecting Pun ments, none will dispute that the primary intention of punishn should be reformation, and that no reformation in this world can t place in that man who is sent out of it by the hands of the exe tioner : but for the prevention of the higher crimes, the most ser forfeiture, that of life, has been decreed by the institutions of soc *in terrorem*. The difficulty consists in laying the line of discriminat a difficulty which perhaps involves the impossibility of guarding aga instances of lamentable severity, any otherwise than by the preroga of mercy which the sovereign possesses. It is easy to imagine s cases as Mr. Holcroft has delineated, though the crime may be m readily exemplified than the amendment ; and in all such, *his* term tion is much more pleasing and more beneficial than that of the h man : but general laws are not to be founded on particular facts.

POLITICAL.

Art. 32. *Observations addressed to the Public, in particular to Grand Juries, of these Dominions.* 8vo. pp. 73. 2s 6d. Riv tons. 1806.

This writer is of opinion that, in the course of the last fif years, a great moral degeneracy has prevailed among the middle lower orders of the community ; and mourning over the lament change in appropriate strains, he warmly exhorts all persons of we and influence to stem the growing torrent. His counsels are wel tended, and in general shew his good sense not less than his regard religion and virtue : but we are sorry to find him discouraging day Schools, and countenancing the vulgar cry against unshac trade.

Art. 33. *Advantages of Russia in the present Contest with Fr* With a short Description of the Cozacks. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jo and Co. 1807.

The gigantic power of France is now in close contact with gigantic power of Russia, and Europe is looking with anxious exp ation to the result of the sanguinary conflict. In opposition to opinion of many, and to the fears of more, this writer contend the superior advantages of Russia, and would induce us to hope the exorbitant domination of France will be curbed by the pr warfare in Poland. Much, however, as we wish to see the strid Bonaparte to universal empire effectually checked, we cannot our persuasion of the certainty of this event on any of the statements of this pamphlet. Declamations on the abilities of Suwarow, or on the result of the battle of Austerlitz, (here called not a victory, but 'a handsome present from the Cabinet of Austria to the Emperor of the French,') are little suited to the present purpose. We expected to find calculations of the physical strength of the two contending empires; instead of which, we are presented with a display of the loyalty, incorruptibility, and *individual superiority* of the Russian soldier, and with accounts of the value of Calmuck and Cozack tribes as irregular troops. It is hinted, indeed, that Russia is inferior to her adversary in point of revenue; which intimation will no doubt incline the liberal John Bull to accede to a handsome subsidy.

Towards the conclusion, the writer seems to fear, notwithstanding the display of advantages on the part of Russia, that France will succeed in the contest: but, if this should be the case, it must arise, he says, from its being the will of Heaven that Boraparte should be the scourge of mankind. Thus, if Alexander triumphs, the author will plume himself on his discernment; if Napoleon, he will shelter himself under the decrees of Providence.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 34. *A View of Religions*, in three Parts; Part I Containing an Alphabetical Compendium of the Denominations among Christians. Part II. Containing a brief Account of Paganism, Mahomedism, Judaism, and Deism. Part III. Containing a View of the Religions of the different Nations of the World. By Hannah Adams. A new Edition, with Corrections and Additions. To which is prefixed, An Essay on Truth, by Andrew Fuller. 12mo. pp. 500. 6s. Boards. Button. 1805.

It is very natural for a man who has conscientiously devoted himself to the examination of the Scriptures, to suppose that his view of religious truth must be correct; yet, if he reflected that others, who differ from him, may be equally conscientious, and are equally interested with himself in the discovery of truth, he would see reason for abating his self-confidence, and for contemplating his own belief (if we may so express ourselves,) with a kind of scepticism. An Essay on Truth, prefixed to a dictionary of *Religions, or rather to the long catalogue of the sects* which have prevailed in the Christian world, may be well meant, but, by its very position, it seems to proclaim itself a hopeless attempt. Mr Fuller ventures to reply to the difficult question, What is Truth? and we have no doubt of his having given an honest opinion: but how far he has actually succeeded, his readers must be left to determine. We purpose not to controvert his decisions, yet we beg to suggest to him the propriety of weighing the exact meaning of words, in deciding on the doctrines of Revelation. We must ask whether the phrase *Christ died for us* is precisely equivalent to he 'died as our substitute?' *For* more frequently expresses *in behalf of*, than *in the room of*; the sense affixed to *for* will materially change the view of the subject; and a modest man, after having stated his particular notions of the benefits derived by sinners from the sufferings and death of Christ, would have been restrained from adding. 'If this doctrine be received, Christianity is received: if not, the record which God hath given us of his Son is rejected.'

Mr. F. enumerates *three* grand sources of error: 1. Unconverted Ministers. 2. Nominal Christians. 3. Unsanctified Wisdom found in godly Men:—but such an account will afford little satisfaction to philosophical inquirers.—In stating the reasons why God permits error, Mr. F. is evidently unequal to the task. Who will regard the difficulty as solved by being told that '*false* doctrine is permitted, that it may sweep away hypocritical characters?'—This Essay is indeed calculated only for one particular meridian.

The Dictionary appears to be compiled with much fairness; and it contains a long article on the *Friends* or *Quakers*, on which peculiar care has been bestowed. To such as are desirous of becoming acquainted with the *credenda* of this church, the particulars here inserted will be interesting, especially as they are exhibited for the purpose of obviating the representation given by Mr. Evans in his "Sketch of Denominations," of the similarity of their principles to Socinianism. The evidence of Barclay is quoted, to prove that the Quakers, while they admit the Scriptures to be of divine authority, do not esteem them "the *principal* ground of truth, nor the *primary* rule of faith, but only a *secondary* rule, *subordinate* to the spirit." How the members of that community can subscribe to this tenet, and maintain some of their late proceedings, we confess ourselves to be at a loss to determine. If they hold the Scriptures to be subordinate to the Spirit, how can they justify the excommunication or disownment of those who conscientiously plead the authority of the *inward law of the Spirit*, in support of their conduct and doctrine? We intreat them duly to weigh the difficulty by which they are here embarrassed. The interests of truth and charity equally demand it of this very respectable body, to whose virtues we have often paid the sincerest tribute, and whose liberality we were reluctant to impeach.

In the 2d and 3d parts of this work, the reader will meet with curious and amusing accounts of the different religions that now prevail in the several quarters and subdivisions of the globe; and which concludes with stating that the extent of the Christian religion, compared with the parts overspred with *Paganism* and Mahometanism, is as five to twenty-five. We recommend this fact to the serious attention of Mr. Faber; and we request him to consider whether it be in the smallest degree probable that Christianity, which has occupied eighteen hundred years in propagating itself over a *fifth* part of the globe, should require only sixty years for the conversion of the remaining *four-fifths*? Why the Christian religion is still confined to so small a part of the earth, it is difficult to conceive; since it possesses the characters of truth, nations, as they become enlightened, must embrace it: but, looking at the ordinary march of Providence, we have no reason for supposing that a few years only are to elapse before "the earth will be filled with the knowlege of the Lord."

Art. 35. *Index to the Bible:* in which the various Subjects which occur in the Scriptures are alphabetically arranged: with accu-

te References to all the Books of the Old and New Testaments,
esigned to facilitate the study of these invaluable Records. By
seph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 12mo. 5s. Boards Johnson.
The makers of indexes and of dictionaries (says Dr P) are never
ved the praise of much *genius*; but these works certainly require
xercise of *judgment*:' he might have added, and of *patience*. This
minous writer speaks of the present little work as the most la-
ous that he ever undertook, though he acknowleges that he de-
d considerable assistance in its compilation from Mr. *Pilkington's*
ical Concordance, or Index to the Bible, printed at Nottingham
749. Acquainted with the utility of index-making, as well as with
labour that attends it, we are always inclined to bestow praise
hose who condescend in this way to become the finger-posts of li-
ture. The work before us will be found very useful to those
wish to refer to the various subjects of sacred Scripture, and is
ch more portable than a concordance. It is very probable that
y persons, who disapprove of Dr. P. as a commentator, will
mend him as an index-compiler; and will wish, as he himself sus-
ts, that he had aimed at nothing higher.

t 36. *Sermons on various Subjects*; by Alexander Hewat, D.D.
Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 447. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.
We mentioned the former Volume of Dr. Hewat's Sermons in
r number for January 1804, and made sufficient remarks on their
aracteristic merits, as well as some extracts in exemplification of
e Dr.'s manner. On the present occasion, we need only to refer
that article, and state that the subjects of these nineteen discourses
: the ensuing:—The folly of distrust in regard to Providence;
bitual awe of God; maternal obligations; education of children;
ucation of youth; manlike conduct and character; right use
d improvement of old age: mysteries; Christ's rule of equity;
rist's claim to the reward of spotless innocence, and perfect obedi-
ce; incredulity of Thomas; rise, progress, and establishment of
ristianity; glorifying in the Cross of Christ; obligations on all
ristians to live in peace; office and authority of conscience; for-
eness of offences; commemorating Christ's sufferings and death;
s and comforts of a Christian life.

t. 37. *Further Evidences of the Existence of the Deity*. Intended
s an humble Supplement to Archdeacon Paley's Natural Theo-
ogy By George Clark. 8vo. 2s. Faulder.
Practical atheism is not uncommon, but we hope that speculative
eism exsists in the mind of very few. It cannot be denied, how-
, that the latter occasionally occurs, and is even abetted by some-
g in the form of argument: yet that the argument has no real
ngth has been repeatedly and most satisfactorily demonstrated.
Paley has remarked that, in order to refute the atheist, he
ld be contented with taking his stand in human anatomy; since
design, contrivance, and adaptation of parts in the animal frame
indisputable proofs of pre-existing and superintending Intelli-
ce. Mr. Clark assumes this ground: but he satisfies himself
resting his proofs of a Deity on *the constitution of the sexes*,
which

which manifests *pre-cogitation*, a *previous intention*, and a *pre-ordi* After having exposed the ridiculous hypothesis of Mirabeau rela to the energies of matter, he observes;

'If we were to allow, for argument's sake, that an animal mig have been produced by the mere energies of matter, it will be to much to admit, that an animal with a Sex, could have been so produced; because that circumstance necessarily pre-supposes tw things, 1. an increase of the species by generation: and, to that en 2. the production of another animal of the *same kind*, but of th *other sex*; and these anticipations could exist only with mind or intellect. It would be a contradiction to the plainest dictates of common sense, to say, that they could exist where *design* or *purpose* we not; or, that design or purpose could be, where there was not min or *intelligence*. And as mind and intelligence can only exist with a *living, sentient agent*, it follows incontestibly, that design, intent and purpose, were employed in the formation of animals, and that there did previously exist a LIVING, SENTIENT AGENT, or, FIRST DESIGNING CAUSE.'

This argument is conclusive; and it is no small compliment to Mr. Clark to add that he has furnished a Supplement to "the Natural Theology" of Dr. Paley, which that ingenious writer, were he alive, would not object to patronize.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *A Defence of the Slave Trade*, on the Grounds of Humanity, Policy, and Justice. 8vo. 2s. Highley.

A defence of persecution on the grounds of humanity would not be more revolting to common sense, than a defence of the slave-trade on this principle. The history of slavery cannot be the history of human happiness; and when it becomes an article of trade and commerce, it cannot be conducted without considerable cruelty. Writers may endeavour to throw some bright tints over the picture: but, after their most laboured efforts, it must be revolting to the eye of the philanthropist. We are told that the slave trade prevents a greater evil, viz. murder: but it is difficult to prove this assertion to such an extent as the argument requires. It is more rational to suppose, calculating on the effects of avarice on man, that this trade stimulates the Africans to make war on each other; and that, if Europeans withdrew from this nefarious commerce, a powerful temptation to crime in the negro princes would cease: but, supposing more cruelty to exist in Africa than we are able to prove, is the slave-trade such a remedy as we should be inclined to apply, were all motives of interest out of the question? When the word policy stands coupled with humanity, we have reason for surmising that the latter is not of the true Christian stamp. The writer tells us how well-fed and happy the negroes are in the West Indies: but does this assertion square with the declaration that it is necessary, in order to keep up the population of the blacks, to have a large annual importation from Africa? After so many hundred thousands of negroes have been conveyed from their native land to the West India Islands, had motives of humanity operated as much as a regard to self interest, the necessity of a farther importation, we should think, would before this ne have been at an end. We would not overlook the interest of e West India planter, but his interest ought not to be promoted by an unjustifiable waste of human life, even in a black skin.

Art. 39. *Substance of the Debates on a Resolution for abolishing the Slave Trade*, &c. which was moved in the House of Commons, 10th June, 1806. and in the House of Lords, 24th June, 1805. With an Appendix, containing Notes and Illustrations. Cr. 8vo. pp. 216. 4s. boards. Phillips and Fardon. 1806.

At length the public has been gratified by the success of the attempt to procure an abolition of the odious traffic in human liberty and happiness; and it will receive with pleasure the present record of the debates in both houses of parliament, which immediately led to the recent ratification of the ministerial plans for accomplishing this laudable design. The speeches appear to be in substance carefully detailed; and the notes afford various interesting exemplifications of the argument.

Art. 40. *The genuine Art of Guaging made easy and familiar*, exhibiting all the principal Methods actually practised by the Officers of his Majesty's Revenue of Excise and Customs, also the established Rules for finding the Areas and Contents of Stills, &c &c. By Peter Jonas, late Supervisor of Excise. 8vo. 9s. boards. Dring and Page, Tooley Street.

The *genuine art of guaging*, as the author calls it, is explained satisfactorily and fully in this treatise: indeed *too fully*, since the bulk of the volume might have been considerably contracted. What necessity was there for making a discourse on decimal fractions, and on square and cube roots, as an introduction to this *genuine art?* Are not these things learnt previously by him who undertakes to make himself master of the science and practice of guaging? With equal reason, the author might have transcribed Euclid's Elements into his treatise. In page 77, he has restricted the meaning of the word parallelogram; and according to him a parallelogram must be a rectangle.

This work, as it must necessarily happen, has excited in our minds but small interest: we have, however, examined several of its rules, and they appear to us sufficiently commodious. The author speaks of Clarke's hydrometer. Is not this instrument, by a late regulation, ordered to be disused, and another substituted in its stead?

Art. 41. *Public Characters of* 1803, 1804, 1805, and 1806. 8vo. 3 vols. 12s. 6d. boards, each. R. Phillips.

In noticing the former volumes of this compilation, we sufficiently pointed out the general objections to which all living biography must be liable, and those in particular to which the present work was exposed, on the score both of selection and of composition. The same remarks apply to the subsequent volumes: but the same recommendations also continue, which seem to insure to the design a degree of public countenance. These recommendations are, its indulgence of a spirit of curiosity which is ever calling for gratification, its supply of interesting anecdotes, its occasional delineations of amiable and instructive examples, and its record of facts and dates. these grounds, the publication has claims to patronage. and in latter point of view, especially, it may supply materials for more c plete biography and history: but it must ever be consulted wi *grains of allowance*, not only where partiality or hostility is obvious, but even with respect to the total suppression of *disobliging* circumstances. We could point out some instances of *hiatus* of this kind, which leave the chain of events most staringly open.

Art. 42. *A complete Verbal Index to the Plays of Shakspeare*, adapted to all the Editions. Comprehending every Substantive, Adjective, Verb, Participle, and Adverb, used by Shakspeare; with a distinct Reference to every individual Passage in which each Word occurs. By Francis Twiss, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 1180. 3l. 3s. boards. Egerton, &c.

If it be drudgery to *compile* an Index, what must be the task of *reviewing* it by an ample verifying examination? We can boast of being equal to the former, but from the latter we shrink with fixed despair. The renowned Jedediah Buxton, of word catching memory, is, alas! no more, and we know not any worthy successor to his fame. Were he living, his talents might, in this industrious age, be made subservient to literature, in index making, or in index revising; and on the present occasion, we should eagerly have sought his assistance. Seriously, however, the merit of an index can only be ascertained by experience, by a trial nearly as long as that to which Horace would submit an original composition: but the *utility* of such an achievement as that of a verbal index to Shakspeare, must be as obvious as its labour; and to Mr. Twiss, for having accomplished this Herculean service, the thanks of the public are due, in a mode in which we trust he will copiously receive them.

Mr. T. justly observes that, by the aid of such an index, many obscure passages in our great dramatic author may be more readily illustrated; and that it will be eminently serviceable even to those who do not study him as a national classic, but 'recur to him as a writer abounding in common places, whose works contain something applicable to the occurrences of almost every hour.' He fairly admits that accuracy constitutes the sole merit of such a work, and that errors can scarcely have been avoided in 'several hundred thousand references.' but he asserts that 'he has spared no pains either in the notation of the words, or in the correction of the press.' and 'to the praise of general correctness he boldly puts in his claim.' The last labours of Mr. Stevens, as an editor of Shakspeare, being given to the world during the progress of this compilation, Mr. Twiss submitted to the duty of collating that edition with the one which he had used; and wherever any deviation in the text, not merely literal, was detected, he has inserted double references; thus adapting his index to every edition of Shakspeare's writings. He has also considered the play of Pericles as the composition of our celebrated bard, on the authority of Mr. Malone and Mr. Stevens. and has indexed it accordingly.—The reader is not to expect from the phrase in the title page *complete verbal index*, that he will here find a reference to every word used in Shakspeare, but must attend to the restrictive denominations of words which follow in the title. Pronouns, for instance, are excluded, and therefore he must not seek for the constantly recurring monosyllables, *I, thou, he, we, you, they*, &c.—nor for all the host of prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, articles, &c.

In the year 1790, the late Mr. Ayscough published an index to *passages* and words in Shakspeare, but it was more particularly constructed for the edition to which it was then appended. We gave an account of it in our 4th vol. N. S. p. 421. and not only made some remarks on the nature of the undertaking which will apply to Mr. Twiss's production, but produced a few *samples of criticism*, which perhaps we might parallel on this occasion: but, if any circumstances can make *Every Gentleman his own Reviewer*, this is one of them.

Art. 43. *Memoirs of the Life of Horatio Lord Viscount Nelson*, &c. &c with the Account of the last Honors paid to his Remains by a grateful Country, &c. By J. Hardy, Esq. 12mo 1s. Crosby and Co.

A concise and cheap compilement, which may serve for the more *ordinary* purposes of circulating the records of Nelson's great deeds, but puffed with claims to which it is not intitled, and intended to be sanctioned by a name which may be mistaken for that of the hero's Captain, and which we suspect to be only *assumed* for that purpose.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 44. *The Duty of Stedfastness in Church Communion.* By Edward Pearson, B D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 12mo. 6d. Hatchard.

Though the antient Jews occasionally yielded to that intercommunity of worship which was prevalent among idolaters, it was inconsistent with their faith in Jehovah as the only true God, and is justly reprobated by the prophet. Jehovah and Baal could not be both acknowleged, in the same manner as a Gentile might, without any violence offered to his creed, present offerings to Minerva at Athens, and to Jupiter Capitolinus at Rome. Mr. Pearson supposes that no more fellowship ought to subsist between the Protestant Established and the Protestant Non established Churches of this country, than between the communions of Jehovah and Baal; and he severely reprobates those who attend the service of the Church on one part of the Sunday, and that of the Meeting-house on the other. He considers these accommodating Christians as "halting between two opinions," (text 1 Kings xviii 21) and seriously urges them to reflect on the impropriety of their conduct. He charges them with violating the unity of the Church, with the sin of schism, and with pronouncing the sentence of their own condemnation. Assuming, perhaps, a loftier attitude than becomes a Protestant, he reminds the Meeting-house frequenter that, 'in the most important concern possible, he gives up a *certainty* for an *uncertainty*;' that 'dissenters in general are not as safe in separating from the Church of England as the Church of England from the Church of Rome;'—and that we have ground from Scripture for supposing that there is an efficacy in the offices of religion, when they are administered by persons who are duly authorized to administer them, which they have not when administered by others.' The persons, against whom the preacher directs his discourse, may say that the principles of both churches are nearly the same; and that they only wish to enjoy the benefits of two modes of worship both alike Christian, and to cherish a liberal, in opposition to a party spirit.—We shall not enter into any argument with Mr P.: but we think that he has exposed himself to some sharp animadversions; and that he will be laughed at for credulity, when he gravely states, on the report of a Mr. Somebody, that a Meeting house minister lately prayed that "it would please God to rain down bricks and mortar from heaven, with which Meeting houses might be built." Could not Mr. P *smell a hoax?*

CORRESPONDENCE.

E N T. of Kennington obligingly communicates some remarks on a passage in Massinger, which attracted our notice in reviewing Mr. Gifford's late edition of that author. (See Rev. for January, p. 11.) With regard to the term *Galley-foist*, he says, he has in his possession a very scarce large view of London, well engraved by Nicholas John Visscher, who flourished in 1600, with the principal buildings, &c. named in it; and which contains a large pleasure boat, with 3 or 4 masts, much ornamented and fitted up seemingly for parties of pleasure, called "*the Galley fuste.*" A naval friend, he informs us, describes it as "a ship-rigg'd vessel, with a jigger-mast abaft to set the mizen on:" and our correspondent adds that 'it certainly was not a Lord Mayor's barge, as described by Mr. Gifford, as it stands very high out of the water, and is pierced for several Guns'—E.N.T. then enters into some etymological conjectures, which we suspect to be erroneous; and we have now to subjoin, that our old friend, N Bailey, in his valuable Etymological English Dictionary, (which we before unaccountably omitted to consult,) inserts the word *Foist*, and calls it "*a pinnace, or small ship, with sails or oars.*" —These concurring evidences seem to set the question at rest with regard to the meaning of the term *Galley foist*:—*Bullions*, and *Quirpo* or *Cuerpo*. (see also Bailey) we have already explained:—so that this passage in Massinger, and the division of a beau's time in the days of that poet, may now be fully understood.

W. S. refers to an Extract from a book which we have not now at hand.

Our correspondent at Emanuel College is under a mistake. We have never seen a 2d Edition of the work which he mentions.

'A *very* warm admirer' almost scorches us with his flaming praise: but we must coldly inform him, that such publications as that which is the object of his warmest solicitude do not attract our attention.

⁂ In the APPENDIX to Vol. LI. of the Monthly Review, which was published with the last Number, P. 457. l. [illegible]. for 'there,' r. *here.* P. 507. l. 11. after 'lovers,' add *of.* P. 514 l. 12. for 'powers,' r. *power.*

In the No. for January, P. 61. l. 26. for 'and indeed,' r. *indeed, and.* P. 90. l 17. for 'three into,' r. *into three.*

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For MARCH, 1807.

Art. I. *Biographical Memoirs of the late Rev. Joseph Warton, D.D.* Master of St. Mary, Winton College; Prebendary of Winchester Cathedral; and Rector of the Parishes of Wickham and Upham, Hants: to which are added, a Selection from his Works; and a Literary Correspondence between eminent Persons, reserved by him for Publication. By the Rev. John Wool, A.M., late Fellow of New College, Oxford; Rector of Blackford, Somerset; and Master of the Free Grammar School of Midhurst, Sussex. 4to. pp. 426. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1806.

So direct and extensive is the influence of letters in meliorating the condition of society, that the history of every eminent scholar may be safely regarded as a subject of more honourable record than that of heroes and statesmen, who too often shine with a dazzling but destructive splendour. Other views and feelings, too, than those connected with gratitude alone, contribute to the importance of impartial displays of literary biography; since no object can more deeply interest the student of human nature than a cultivated understanding, and in no circumstances are the mental faculties more distinctly developed than in the acquisition of knowlege and science. We may be allowed to add that, next to familiar access to the living models of learning, the memorials of their talents and virtues are powerfully calculated to rouse genius and inspire emulation. It must at the same time be conceded that the task of commemoration too frequently devolves on those who are by no means qualified for its performance; and while one presents us with little more than a chronicle of dates, a second blends with facts the partialities of consanguinity or friendship, a third recites with complacency the most trivial incidents, and a fourth exalts the hero of his theme into a saint, or a demi-god.

These general reflections have been suggested by the title of the present volume respecting an eminent and amiable literary character, which sufficiently indicates the nature and

divisions of its contents. A second, which it is inte
publish with all convenient speed, will include Dr. W
Life of Virgil, his three essays on Pastoral, Epi
Dramatic Poetry, his papers in the Adventurer, a
tion of the correspondence, and a supplement.

From the Memoirs, to which our first and princip
tion is due, we shall endeavour to collect the most in
notices into a connected series.

Joseph Warton was born in the house of his
grandfather, the Rev. Joseph Richardson, Rector of
in Surrey, and was baptized on the 22d of April, 17
his father, who was Professor of Poetry in Oxford,
chiefly indebted for instruction, till the year 1736,
was admitted on the foundation of Winchester Colle
manifested that vigour of intellect and that goodness
for which he was ever afterward distinguished. It
cularly mentioned that, in this early stage of his lite
reer, he joined with Collins and another boy in cont
to the Gentleman's Magazine certain verses, which
the flattering approbation of the author of the Ramb
1740, he removed to Oriel College, Oxford, where
riority of his endowments was speedily recognized, an
he composed some poetical effusions. On taking his b
degree, he was ordained on his father's curacy, and a
performed the ministerial duties at different parishes,
when he was presented by the Duke of Bolton to the
of Winslade, and married Miss Daman, to whom he
for some time enthusiastically attached.

> ' In the year 1751, he was called from the indulgence
> bial happiness, and the luxury of literary retirement, to a
> patron to the South of France; for which invitation the
> two motives, the society of a man of learning and taste, an
> commodation of a Protestant clergyman, who, immediat
> death of his Duchess, then in a confirmed dropsy, could
> to the lady with whom he lived, and who was universally
> distinguished by the name of Polly Peachum.'

On this occasion, the reverend biographer, to
astonishment, adopts the language, not of pointed
sion, but of apology and extenuation.—After all, Mr.
continental tour was far from auspicious; for the D
patience deprived him of his expected recompense;
information, which the scholar was solicitous of ac
the course of his rambles, was often intercepted by
rance of the French language. The bald Latinity
Irish friars must have proved a wretched resource for
sical adept, whose national pronunciation of the Rom

t render his communication with learned natives of France anageable and uncertain.

oon after his return to England, Mr. Warton favoured the lic with an edition of Virgil, in Latin and English, in ch he adopted Pitt's translation of the Æneid, and supplied y valuable notes. In consequence of a very flattering intion, he was next induced to furnish for the Adventurer nty-four papers, chiefly relative to subjects of criticism and rature: but his scheme of editing the select epistles of Poanus, Erasmus, Grotius, and others, on a scale sufficiently ensive to embrace the history of the revival of learning, was fortunately abandoned. In 1754, he was instituted to the ng of Tunworth; and, in the following year, he was cted Second Master of Winchester School, to which office re attached the superintendance and emoluments of a boardhouse.

He entered on his honourable employment with all the energy ind like his naturally conceived: but his zeal was tempered with gement, and the eagerness of his expectations chastened by salu patience. Ardent in provoking emulation, and rewarding exence, he was at the same time aware that the standard of aped merit must not be placed too high, or the laudable industry ch gradually invigorates mediocrity of talent, be crushed by disportionate demands. He knew that the human mind developed f progressively, but not always in the same consistent degrees, or eriods uniformly similar. He conjectured therefore that the probable method of ensuring some valuable improvement to the rality of boys, was not to exact what the generality are incapable rforming. As a remedy for inaccurate construction, arising either apparent idleness or inability, he highly approved, and seduy imposed, translation. Modesty, timidity, or many other contional impediments, may prevent a boy from displaying before his er, and in the front of his class, those talents, of which privacy relief from these embarrassments will often give proof. If Adn, in the prime of life and possession of the richest mental ennents, could confess when speaking of his deficience in conversa that with respect to intellectual wealth "he could draw a bill thousand pounds, though he had not a guinea in his pocket," y be supposed that boys not really destitute of talent, or inca of becoming scholars, are sometimes so oppressed by shyness or as not to do themselves justice in the common routine of public ruction, and to require a varied method of ascertaining their iency of information and intellect. This important end Dr. RTON thought happily answered by translation; nor did he deem ly of its value as a general system. A habit of composition he ined to be gradually acquired by it; and the style and sentiments author deeply engraven on the memory of the scholar. These ments were confirmed by that most infallible test, experience; declared (within a few years of his death) that the best scholars he had sent into the world were those whom, whilst second he had thus habituated to translation, and given a capacity paring and associating the idiom of the dead languages wi own.'

In 1756, he published his Essay on the Genius and W of Pope, and received a chaplain's scarf from his friend and Lord Lyttelton. Ten years afterward, he was appointe Master of the seminary in which he had laboured wi duty and success in the capacity of Usher. While t vancing to fame and independance, he was deprived b of the wife whom he tenderly loved: but, at no long i of time, he formed a second matrimonial connection, a again peculiarly fortunate in his choice of an amiable telligent partner:

'It is no (*not*) less reprehensible than remarkable, that the t the poet and critic, and the successful exertions of the instruc as yet received neither encouragement or (*nor*) remuneration. one man of power and patronage, though the sons of many trusted to his care, deemed it incumbent on him to conf affluence or dignity on their Master. It remained for a Prel high in theological and classical reputation, for one who k value of literary acquirements, and was in his own person a guished example of the public benefit to which they may verted, to do honour to himself and his situation by the pr of Dr. WARTON. In the year 1782, the eminently lear pious Dr. Lowth, then Bishop of London, bestowed on hi bend of St. Paul's, and within the year added the living of in Hertfordshire, which, after some arrangements, the Doc changed for Wickham.'

In the same year, appeared the long expected sequel Essay on Pope.—During the spring of 1786, Dr. War visited with a severe domestic affliction, in the loss of cond son, a man of high talents and superior infor Within four years of this date, he had likewise to depl death of that brother to whom, from childhood, he h invariably attached, 'and for whose genius and fame ever felt the most pure and liberal admiration.'—Hav signed the Mastership in 1793, he courted retirement out renouncing those literary habits which he had, i measure, identified with his existence. In 1797, h pleted his edition of Pope, in nine volumes, octavo; are informed that he had finished for the press two vol his intended edition of Dryden, when, sinking under t sure of disease, he expired on the 23d of February, 18 cannot but wish,' remarks his biographer, 'that the p of the manuscript had found it convenient, or deemed it to publish at least the two volumes *left* (and declared t under the Doctor's own hand) *ready* for the press, and had taken the earliest opportunity of giving to the world his father's last and sacred farewell to literature.'

Mr. Wooll thus portrays the character of his much respected author:

> 'Zealous in his adherence to the church establishment, and exemplary in his attention to its ordinances and duties, he was at the same time a decided enemy to bigotry or intolerance. His style of preaching was unaffectedly earnest and impressive; and the dignified solemnity with which he read the Liturgy (particularly the Communion service) was remarkably awful. He had the most happy art of arresting the attention of youth on religious subjects. Every Wiccamical reader will recollect his inimitable commentaries on Grotius in the Sunday evenings, and his discourse annually delivered in the school on Good Friday; the impressions made by them cannot be forgotten.
>
> 'To descend to the minutiæ of daily habits is surely beneath the province of biography. Free, open, and chearful to his friends, without rigour or sullen severity to those he disliked. Dr. Warton in his general character could never deserve and seldom incur enmity. A playful liveliness, even on the most dry and didactic subjects, ivested him of the smallest appearance of that pedantry which is o apt to attach itself to scholars by profession. None could leave is society without improvement, yet never was the man found who as oppressed by his superiority. The charm of unaffected ease and ood humour prevented every feeling of inequality, every jealousy of ceiving instruction: no individual perhaps ever possessed in a stronger degree the powers of enlivening conversation by extensive knowdge, correct judgment, and elegant taste. His chearfulness and signation in affliction were invincible: even under the extreme of dily weakness, his strong mind was unbroken, and his limbs became ralyzed in the very act of dictating an epistle of friendly criticism. quiet, so composed was his end, that he might more truly be said cease to live than to have undergone the pangs of death.'

We deem it superfluous to advert to the sedate and judicious iticisms which are blended with the biographical details; beuse the writings to which they refer have already passed the blic ordeals, and sufficiently speak for themselves. The rrative, on the whole, is rather deficient in vivacity, and by means rich in variety of incident. The writer has, indeed, idably abstained from childish recitals and silly gossipping: t he has reported few anecdotes which paint character, or eak to feeling, and is wonderfully sparing of those approate traits of manner and disposition, which constitute the arm and physiognomy (if we may say so) of biographical iting. A marginal note, which occurs near the end of the lume, and which might with great propriety have been inserted in the Memoirs, will aptly exemplify the kind of information to which we allude:

'Independant of the Duchess of Portland, Mrs. Greville, Mrs. Carter, and Mrs. Montagu, whose talents and information Dr. Warton held in the highest esteem, and with whom he frequently corresponded; the sex in general were partial to him: and the Editor has frequently seen the young, the handsome, and the gay, deserted by the belles, to attract the notice of Dr. W.; whilst he was, on his part, thoroughly accessible, and imparted his lively sallies and instructive conversation with the most gallant and appropiate pleasantry. He was a great admirer of beauty, nor was it in his nature to use a rude expression to a female. He had moreover a great tenderness and love for children, and fully exemplified the maxim, that wherever there are an uniform attention to the female sex, and an indulgent notice of children, there is a warm and feeling heart. His politeness to the ladies however was once put to a hard test: He was invited, whilst Master of Winchester, to meet a relative of Pope, who, from her connection with the family, he was taught to believe could furnish him with much valuable and private information. Incited by all that eagerness which so strongly characterized him, he on his introduction sat immediately close to the lady, and, by enquiring her consanguinity to Pope, entered at once on the subject; when the following dialogue took place: -Pray, Sir, did not you write a book about my cousin Pope?—Warton. Yes, Madam.—Lady. They tell me 'twas vastly clever. He wrote a great many plays, did not he!—Warton. I have heard only of one attempt, Madam.—Lady. Oh no, I beg your pardon, that was Mr. Shakespear; I always confound them.—This was too much even for the Doctor's gallantry; he replied, Certainly, Madam; and with a bow changed his seat to the contrary side of the room, where he sat, to the amusement of a large party, with such a mingled countenance of archness and chagrin, such a struggle between his taste for the ridiculous, and his natural politeness, as could be pourtrayed but by his speaking and expressive countenance. In a few minutes he quitted the company, but not without taking leave of the lady in the most polite and unaffected manner.'

The motives, which the editor assigns for publishing only a selection of his author's poetical works, we shall mention in his own words:

'It is not a necessary consequence that the productions of a youthful poet, however valued at that time by himself or favourably received by the world, should bear the deliberate test of experience, or be sanctioned by the mellow judgement of matuter years: and certain it is, that some pieces, though perfectly congenial with the glow of fancy and spirited force of poetical imagery which so strongly marked all the efforts of his mind, were consigned by the wishes of Dr. W. himself to oblivion! To revive such in a posthumous publication would be the height of cruelty.'

e could even have pardoned Mr. Wooll, if he had circumsed the range of his choice within still narrower bounds; of more than thirty pieces which he has culled, ely any can be ranked among poems of the first order. e is pleased to bestow on 'the Dying Indian' the expresof 'inimitably characteristic,' we shall give it entire:

'THE DYING INDIAN.

'The dart of Izdabel prevails! 'twas dipt
In double poison—I shall soon arrive
At the blest island, where no tygers spring
On heedless hunters; where ananas bloom
Thrice in each moon; where rivers smoothly glide,
Nor thund'ring torrents whirl the light canoe
Down to the sea; where my forefathers feast
Daily on hearts of Spaniards!—O my Son,
I feel the venom busy in my breast;
Approach, and bring my crown, deck'd with the teeth
Of that bold Christian who first dar'd deflow'r
The virgins of the Sun; and, dire to tell!
Robb'd Pachacamac's altar of its gems!
I mark'd the spot where they interr'd this traitor,
And once at midnight stole I to his tomb,
And tore his carcase from the earth, and left it
A prey to poisonous flies. Preserve this crown
With sacred secrecy: if e'er returns
Thy much-lov'd mother from the desart woods,
Where, as I hunted late, I hapless lost her,
Cherish her age. Tell her, I ne'er have worshipp'd
With those that eat their God. And when disease
Preys on her languid limbs, then kindly stab her
With thine own hands, nor suffer her to linger,
Like Christian cowards, in a life of pain.
I go! great Copac beckons me! Farewell!'

e add the 'Ode to Music,' on account of its brevity and cal flavour:

'Queen of every moving measure,
Sweetest source of purest pleasure,
Music! why thy powers employ
Only for the sons of Joy?
Only for the smiling guests,
At natal or at nuptial feasts;
Rather thy lenient numbers pour
On those whom secret griefs devour;
Bid be still the throbbing hearts
Of those, whom death, or absence parts,
And, with some softly whisper'd air,
Smooth the brow of dumb despair.'

The 'Ode to Fancy' is not devoid of spirit: but most of the other effusions are correctly tame, and excite little emotion.—'Ranelagh-house, a satire,' is not an unhappy imitation of Le Sage's manner, and agreeably enlivens the general gravity of the volume. We shall transcribe a few sentences, which the author of *le Diable Boiteux* would not have disclaimed:

'That pert young fellow with a black ribbon round his neck, in a fustian frock with very short skirts, and a very broad-brim'd hat in an affected impudent cock, is a Templar, who having read all the modern comedies and farces, the Spectators, Dryden's prefaces and dedications, and having once squeez'd out a prologue to a play that was damn'd, sets up for a critic and a wit. His cat-call is generally heard the first in the pit; he is the Coryphæus of those unmannerly disturbers of the public. He is the most despicable thing that ever disgraced humanity. He rises at twelve at noon, saunters to some coffee-house till one, dresses and has dined by four, then to the coffee-house again, after that to the play for two acts, after that takes a round through all the bagnios and brothels in Covent Garden, kicks whores, and gets drunk with arrack punch, staggers home at three in the morning, quarrels with the watch, and breaks lamps. Hæc est vita solutorum. And this is a compleat and exact journal of that kind of animal, which by the bye pretends to have a soul, called a Templar. One of the ladies he is talking to is extravagantly fond of cats and lapdogs; a large hound that she hugs and kisses all day, has the honour to lie with her all night. She is a lady of great benevolence to the brute creation. She at this time carries a squirrel in her pocket, and if you observe, has just put in her finger, that the dear little favourite may give her an amorous bite. The other is a prodigious devotee, and a great reader of Thomas à Kempis: she has had thoughts of retiring from the world into some grotto in a desert, and to carry nothing with her but a lamp and a death's head: I wonder to see her here, but I suppose she comes to make grave reflections on the vanity of all pleasures and earthly amusements. She constantly frequents a church in the City, where there is a handsome young lecturer, who preaches prettily, has a graceful lisping delivery, and abounds in the most smart antitheses, most elegant and ingenious conceits, and the best turned periods imaginable. He never frightens his fair audience with the mention of any of my fraternity, but, if I may so say, strews the path Heaven with flowers. But hold a little: by Proserpine, I see yonder the very man I am speaking of; 'tis he with a smooth round face, and a neck-cloth so white and so well plaited under his florid double chin. He preach'd last Sunday in a silk gown, with a lawn handkerchief in his hand, and a fine diamond ring upon his finger, upon this well chosen text; 'And why take ye thought for raiment?' He bows so well, and flatters so smoothly, and has so little spirit of honesty, that he will certainly be a dean.'

Of the letters, many which are trifling, or merely complimentary, and some which relate to transactions that can no longer interest the public, might have been spared. Others, however, afford amiable views of character, or affecting sentiments, and form a valuable part of the publication. Dr. W.'s own letters, almost entirely addressed to his brother, are in general remarkable only for their affection. Though we have scarcely left space for additional extracts, we cannot deny ourselves the gratification of transcribing two or three of the most impressive of these epistles:

' DEAN SWIFT TO ———— AT LYNN.

' Sir, London, Dec. 26, 1711.

' That you may not be surprized with a letter from a person utterly unknown to you, I will immediately tell you the occasion of it. The Lady who lived near two years in your neighbourhood, and whom you were so kind sometimes to visit under the name of Mrs. Smyth, was Mrs. Ann Long, sister to Sir James Long, and niece of Colonel Strangways. She was of as good a private family as most in England, and had every valuable quality of body and mind that could make a lady loved and esteemed; accordingly she was always valued here above most of her sex, and by the most distinguisht persons. But by the unkindness of her friends, and the generosity of her own nature, and depending upon the death of a very old Grandmother, which did not happen till it was too late, she contracted some debts that made her uneasy here, and, in order to clear them, was content to retire unknown to your town, where I fear her death has been hastned by melancholy, and perhaps the want of such assistance as she might have found here.

' I thought fit to signify this to you, partly to let you know how valuable a person you have lost; but chiefly to desire that you will please to bury her in some part of your church, near a wall, where a plain marble stone may be fixed, as a poor monument for one who deserved so well, and which, if God sends me life, I hope one day to place there, if no other of her friends will think fit to do it. I had the honor of an intimate acquaintance with her; and was never so sensibly touched with any one's death as with hers; neither did I ever know a person, of either sex, with more virtues or fewer infirmityes; the onely one she had, which was the neglect of her own affairs, arising wholly from the goodness of her temper. I write not this to you at all as a secret, but am content your town should know what an excellent person they have had among them.

' If you visited her any short time before her death, or know any particulars about it, or of the state of her mind, or the nature of her disease; I beg you will be so obliging to inform me; for the letter we have seen from her poor maid, is so imperfect, by her grief for the death of so good a lady, that it onely tells the time of her death; and your letter may if you please be directed to Dr. Swift, and put under a cover, which cover may be directed to Erasmus Lewis, Esq. at the Earl of Dartmouth's Office at Whitehall.

' I hope you will forgive this trouble, for the occasion of it, and give some allowances to so great a loss, not onely to me, but to all

who

reputation.[*] I immediately determined that your name sho
mentioned, but the paper having been some time writter
Hawkesworth, I suppose, did not care to disorder its text, anc
fore put your eulogy in a note. He and every other man n
your papers of Criticism with great commendation, thou
with greater than they deserve.

‘ But how little can we venture to exult in any intellectual
or literary attainments, when we consider the condition of po
lins. I knew him a few years ago full of hopes and full of p
versed in many languages, high in fancy, and strong in ret
This busy and forcible mind is now under the government o
who lately would not have been able to comprehend the le
most narrow of its designs. What do you hear of him? a
hopes of his recovery? or is he to pass the remainder of his
misery and degradation? perhaps with complete consciousnes
calamity.

‘ You have flatter'd us, dear Sir, for some time with hopes
ing you; when you come you will find your reputation en
and with it the kindness of those friends who do not envy y
success always produces either love or hatred. I enter m
among those that love, and that love you more and more in
tion as by writing more you are more known; and believe
you continue to diffuse among us your integrity and learning,
be still with greater esteem and affection,

‘ Dear Sir,
Your most obedient
and most humble servant,
SAM. JO

In a subsequent letter, Dr. Johnson thus forcibly rev

' An English Officer, who maintained a post with a small force against the whole Spanish army, and thereby preserved one of the richest provinces in Portugal, had sent him for a present from the Government five-and-twenty moidores, with a lame excuse that the necessities of the Government would not permit them to send more. The Officer, with a becoming magnanimity, returned the money, adding that he was sorry for the necessities of the State, and that, if they pleased, there was the like sum of money of his, at their service, in the hands of his agent.'

The reader will likewise peruse with satisfaction two excellent letters of *Single-speech Hamilton*, and have his curiosity awakened by the names of Chancellor Hoadly, Dr. Young, Lord Lyttelton, Bishop Lowth, Sir William Blackstone, Bp. Warburton, Horace Walpole, Jo. Toup, Mickle, Garrick, Colman, and other distinguished personages, who bear their part in this portion of epistolary intercourse.

Notwithstanding the reasons which the editor alleges in his concluding note, we could have wished that he had not altered the distribution of his materials, but had exhausted his first and second divisions in the first volume, and reserved the whole of the correspondence for the second. Though in this and some other respects he might have acquitted himself more to our satisfaction, we cannot hesitate to affirm that his labours have contributed an interesting accession to English literature, relative to a man whom the English Literati have so long loved and esteemed.

The volume is illustrated by a head of Dr. Warton, a sketch of his monument in Winchester Cathedral, and a fac-simile of his hand-writing.

ART. II. *A Treatise of Mechanics*, theoretical, practical, and descriptive. By Olinthus Gregory, of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. 2 Vols. 8vo.; and a Vol. of Plates. 1l. 16s. Boards. Kearsley. 1806.

In the Principia of Newton, the part preceding the sections contains a few propositions relative to Equilibrium, and to the Impact of Bodies: but that great author professes not to treat of Mechanics *; and therefore the Laws of Motion, the composition of Motion, the property of the Lever, &c. are but concisely discussed.

Roger Cotes was the author of three small works, on the rectilinear descent of Bodies, the motion of Projectiles, and on the motion of Bodies in a Cycloid; and he so well executed these parts, that we regret that he did not take a wider range.

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* "*Cæterum mechanicam tractare non est hujus instituti.*"

Emerson published a treatise on Mechanics, abounding with useful information, but not excellently adapted to Students, since it labours under the ordinary defects of his productions; want of method, and of luminous arrangement. Emerson, in general, was just in his notions, but very aukward in expressing them; an original thinker, he had peculiar modes of conception, but those modes were not the most easy and perspicuous to the generality of his readers.

Since Emerson's time, several other books on this subject have appeared: among these, that of Atwood, (with an unsuitable title,) Parkinson's heavy tome, and a neat tracate by Mr. Wood of Cambridge, occupy the first rank: yet we hope not to be deemed fastidious, if we say that none of these are exactly suited to our taste.

The French can boast of many large works on Mechanics, by Varignon, Marcotte, &c. To these authors, however, the science is not indebted for any great and essential progress: but to D'Alembert it owes real obligation. He generalized the principle of James Bernouilli employed by that mathematician in his problem concerning the Centre of Oscillation; and he made the doctrine of motion in machines and systems of bodies, to depend on equations similar to those which obtain in the doctrine of Equilibrium. The science of Mechanics is made to comprehend the doctrines of Equilibrium of motion, and of the Impact of bodies; and each part was advanced and improved by the researches of D'Alembert. To the success of his labours in Dynamics, properly so called, we may add that the doctrine and fundamental propositions of Equilibrium are most luminously and ably discussed by him in the *Encyclopédie*, and in his Preface to his Dynamics.

In modern times, M. La Grange is said to have reduced a Mechanics to certain differential equations. We meet, ho ever, with very few mathematicians who are masters of method, or who are able to apply his all *powerful Equatio* to the demonstration of simple problems, such as present the selves in Equilibrium and Dynamics. His *Mécanique Ana* *tique* has, in our opinion, abundant merit, but few works so ill adapted to the comprehension and attainments of t ordinary Student. So many things are supposed to be know and so many formulas are assumed as true, that he who c read the first sections without evolving other books, must no contemptible mathematician: but to perform the simple operations of solution with curious and elaborate artifices calculation is not to act conformably to the plain dictates common sense and reason. The fact is, as we have alread stated, that very few read,—or, reading, understand,—the *Me* ue *Analytique*. It has had commentators among the ma- aticians of France; or rather authors who, adopting La ge's method, have simplified and illustrated it by ex- les. Of works with such an object and description, may entioned that of Francœur, formerly noticed by us *; and similar publications, as it appears to us, the author of the ent treatise has derived considerable assistance.

he term *Mechanics* is in this title-page applied in a very prehensive sense, since the treatise contains not only the rines of Equilibrium and of Motion, but the theories of rostatics and Pneumatics, and an explanatory description Mechanical Instruments and Machines.—We are not, how- , disposed to quarrel with the author for having extended signification of a term, nor for having treated the subject re fully than is usual in English works of science. Indeed, e have just stated, our tracts on Mechanics are not nu- ous: some are antiquated, and others are scanty: so that present volumes appear at least in a favourable conjunc- , when we do not complain of being oppressed by redundant ter, nor satiated by excess of information.

Ir. Gregory has distributed Mechanics into two parts, the trine of Equilibrium and Dynamics. This division is proper just; and on the Continent, since the time of D'Alembert, s been usually observed. In fact, the science of Dynamics, prehending the laws of the motion of Machines, is founded principle distinct from any that is employed in the doc- of Equilibrium. If indeed that principle be established, may the formulas and propositions of Dynamics be de- d; and the doctrine of Equilibrium may, by an unnatural ralization, be included within that of motion, by assign- evanescent values to the velocities of the parts of the Ma- es. This plan, however, is so remote from all simplicity, it deserves not to be adopted: it is as preposterous as ld be the method of solving rectilinear triangles from the onstrated properties of spherical triangles.

he whole doctrine of Equilibrium rests, as D'Alembert ob- ed in the preface to his Dynamics, on the composition of es, and on the property of the Lever. He himself brought ther and assimilated these two principles. Other authors separately considered them. Independently of the com- tion of forces, Mr. Gregory has given a demonstration of property of the Lever, which is due to Galileo; and he re- s that this demonstration is much more simple than that Archimedes.—To the justice of this observation, however, we are not disposed to assent: in each of these demonstrations, as we conceive, the same principle is assumed; or in each, if the validity of the proof were contested, the point of difficulty and subject of doubt would be the same. In addition to this proof, the author has subjoined that of Newton; which, certainly, for its simplicity and for the evidence of the principle assumed, is especially intitled to the attention of students.

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* See Rev. Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 541.

In the demonstration of the Composition of Forces, Mr. Gregory has followed D'Alembert's method; the justness and perspicuity of which we are by no means inclined to controvert; we regret only that the demonstration is so long. A proposition divided into so many cases, and resting in its last case on the principle of the *reductio ad absurdum*, placed in the front of an elementary treatise, is apt to damp the ardor of learners: yet we must confess that we can suggest no simple remedy for this evil: since the proof, with all its prolixity and divisions, is far preferable to that which is usually drawn from the composition of Motion.

Though this first and fundamental proposition in Equilibrium be long and perplexing, all others are short and easy. In fact, theorems, formulas, &c. that are afterward demonstrated, are deductions from the original proposition: we have only to vary its form and expression, in order to obtain properties and theorems: which variation of expression is properly the business of Analysis and Geometry; and that student makes such variation most easily and correctly, who is most imbued with the knowlege of abstract quantity. The comprehension of the generality of the propositions in Physics gives only slight toil to the expert geometer and analyst.

The demonstration of the problems in the doctrine of Equilibrium is effected, we have observed, by varying the expression for the Law of the Composition of Forces. The simplest expression of the law is that a point is kept at rest by three forces represented by the sides of a plane triangle: a varied expression is, that a point is kept at rest when acted on by forces represented by the sides of a polygon, &c.: or, if we algebraically express this law, any variation or transformation in such expression will announce the law under corresponding but somewhat different terms; and particular variations and transformations may be announced as properties, curious results, &c. M. La Grange's method is described in these last sentences: he expresses the law analytically, and then varies the analytical expression. Availing himself of all the refined artifices of calculation, it is not surprising that he so rapidly arrives at results which, on first consideration, appear so very remote from the fundamental proposition. Other mathematicians, adopting similar plans, have conveyed the law by means of expressions drawn from Trigonometry and Algebra, and have then varied the expressions. The author of the present treatise has partly followed this latter method.

It will not be foreign to our purpose to explain, in a few words, this method, of which we believe Maclaurin to have been the inventor.

Since a force acting on a point may, by the law for the resolution of forces, be resolved into two other forces, the three forces, viz. the original and the two equivalent resolved forces, forming any rectilinear triangle, the resolution may be made such that the triangle shall be rectangular: the original force being the hypothenuse, and the two forces being the sides containing the right angle. If a second force act on the point, it may be similarly resolved; and so may any number of forces. Hence, if the lines in the direction of which the resolution is made, be called x and y, and the respective inclinations of forces F, $F' F''$, &c. to such lines be I, I', I'', &c. the result of the whole resolution (that is, the sum or difference of the resolved forces in the directions of x and y,) will be respectively F cos. $I \pm F'$ cos. $I' \pm$ &c. and F sin. $I \pm F'$ sin. $I' \pm$ &c.

The advantage of this resolution is considerable, since a problem relative to Equilibrium may be immediately put into equations, and then the whole attention of the computist is directed to the transformation of such equations. If the forces F, F', &c. keep a point in equilibrio, then, using the symbol Σ to denote the collection of similar terms, we have $\Sigma. F.$ cos. $I = o$, $\Sigma. F.$ sin. $I = o$.—The resolution is effected with the same ease, when the forces do not act in the same plane.

We cannot, however, give unqualified praise to Mr. G. for the manner in which he has treated this part. He has introduced, indeed, the proper materials, but he has not wrought them up with sufficient neatness, nor arranged them with skill. His time apparently was either much interrupted when he composed his treatise, or he began to compose it before he had completely digested its matter.

Mr. Gregory has judiciously mixed with his theories and processes of demonstration, much useful practical matter. He shews what the weight of piers ought to be in order to resist the thrusts of arches, and exhibits the comparative strength of timber, &c. when exposed to lateral strains. We are glad to find this last subject restored to a place in our mechanical treatises. Emerson introduces it; and, since his time, Robison in the Encyclopedia Britannica, and Girard in a separate treatise, (mentioned in our xxixth Vol. N.S. p. 517.) has more profoundly discussed it.

In speaking of Wheels and Axles, Mr. Gregory, in a scholium, touches on a subject that is very curious, and of considerable practical importance; viz. the form of the teeth of Wheels:

'In forming the teeth, it is of considerable importance to determine their proper curvature, so that the motion may be communicated equally, and with as little friction as possible. Two methods of accomplishing this end have been recommended: of these the first was originally proposed by M. de la Hire, who affirmed that the pressure would be uniform *if the* teeth were formed into *epicycloids*; and M. Camus, in his *Cours de Mathematiques*, has pursued M. de la Hire's principle, and applied it to the various cases which are likely to arise in practice. The construction, however, is subject to a limitation; on which account a second method has been proposed, which secures the perfect uniformity of action without any such limitation. This method consists in making both teeth portions of involutes of circles.' . . . . .

Mr. G. then proceeds to shew, by the aid of a diagram, how these Involutes may be formed. Our mathematical readers will easily perceive that, the teeth being formed into these shapes, the force urging the wheels will always act in the direction of a tangent to their circumference; and consequently an uniformity of action must ensue, or equable angular motion.—In the second volume, which treats of machines, &c. this subject is farther continued:*

'It has been long known to mathematicians, and need not here be demonstrated, that one wheel will not drive another with uniform velocity, unless the teeth of one or of both wheels have their faces formed into a curve, generated *after the manner of an epicycloid*, comprehending, under curves of this kind, those which are formed by evolving the circumferences of circles. But in order to insure a uniformity of pressure and velocity in the action of one wheel upon another, it is not absolutely necessary that the teeth either of one or both wheels be exactly epicycloids, in the sense to which geometers commonly restrict that term. If the teeth of one of them be either circular or triangular, with plain sides, or like a triangle with its sides converging to the centre of the wheel, or, in short, of any other form, this uniformity of force and motion will be attained, provided that the teeth of the other wheel have a figure which is compounded of that of an epicycloid, and the figure of the teeth of the first wheel. De la Hire has shewn, in a variety of cases, how to find this compound curve: and we have lately examined a mill in which some teeth have been thus constructed with great skill and success. But as it is often difficult to describe this compound curve, and sometimes impossible to discover its nature, we shall endeavour to select such a form for the teeth as may be easily described by the practical mechanic, while it ensures a uniformity of pressure and velocity. In order to avoid circumlocution and obscurity, we shall call, as is customary with practical men, the small wheel (which is supposed always to be driven by a greater one) the *pinion*, and its teeth, the *leaves* of the pinion. The line which joins the centres of the wheel and pinion may be called the *line of centres.* Now there are three different ways in which the teeth of one wheel may act upon the teeth of another: and each of these modes of action requires a different form for the teeth.

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* We quote matter of which Mr. G. is not the original author, but it connects our observations and reasoning,

I. When the teeth of the wheel begin to act upon the leaves of the pinion just as they arrive at the line of centres; and, when their mutual action is carried on after they have passed this line.

II. When the teeth of the wheel begin to act upon the leaves of the pinion, before they arrive at the line of centres, and conduct them either to this line, or a very little beyond it.

III. When the teeth of the wheel begin to act upon the leaves of the pinion, before they arrive at the line of the centres, and continue to act after they have passed this line.

'I. The first of these modes of action is recommended by Camus and De la Hire, the latter of whom has investigated the form of the teeth solely for this particular case. When this mode of action is adopted, the acting faces of the leaves of the pinion should be parts of an *interior epicycloid* generated by a circle of any diameter rolling upon the concave superficies of the pinion, and the acting faces of the teeth of the wheel should be portions of an *exterior epicycloid* formed by the *same* generating circle rolling upon the convex superficies of the wheel.

'Now it is demonstrable (see the article CYCLOID, Supp. English Encyclo.) and has before been mentioned in our article PARALLEL *motions*, that when one circle rolls within another whose diameter is double that of the rolling circle, the line generated by any point of the latter will be a *straight line*, tending to the centre of the larger circle. If the generating circle, therefore, mentioned above, should be taken with its diameter equal to the radius of the pinion, and be made to roll upon the concave superficies of the pinion, it will generate a straight line tending to the pinion's centre, which will be the form of the acting faces of its leaves; and the teeth of the wheel will, in this case, be exterior epicycloids, formed by a generating circle, whose diameter is equal to the radius of the pinion, rolling upon the convex superficies of the wheel This form of the teeth, viz. when the acting faces of the pinion's leaves are right lines tending to its centre, is exhibited in fig. 14. pl. XXXII. and is perhaps the most advantageous, as it requires less trouble, and may be executed with greater accuracy than if the epicycloidal form had been employed: it is justly recommended both by De la Hire and Camus as particularly advantageous in clock and watch work.

'The attentive reader will perceive that, in order to prevent the teeth of the wheel from acting upon the leaves of the pinion, before they reach the line of centres, and that one tooth of the wheel may not quit the leaf of the pinion till the succeeding tooth begins to act upon the succeeding leaf, there must be a certain proportion between the number of leaves in the pinion and the number of teeth in the wheel, or between the radius of the pinion and the radius of the wheel, when the distance of the leaves is given. But in machinery the number of leaves and teeth are always known from the velocity which is required at the working point of the machine: it becomes a matter, therefore, of great importance, to determine with accuracy the relative radii of the wheel and pinion.'

The author next determines the ratio that ought to obtain between the radius of the wheel and of the pinion; and then he considers what ought to be the form of the teeth of the wheel, when the teeth of the pinion or small wheel are cylindrical staves, fastened between two circular boards or plates parallel to each other. The method which he states may be found in Camus's Dissertation, and is merely graphical. The equation of the curve for the form of the teeth is not given either by the present author or M. Camus.

'If the teeth of wheels (says Mr. G.) and the leaves of pinions be formed according to the directions already given, they will act upon each other, not only with uniform force, but also without friction. The one tooth rolls upon the other, and neither slides nor rubs to such a degree as to retard the wheels, or wear their teeth. But as it is impossible in practice to give that perfect curvature to the acting faces of the teeth which theory requires, a certain quantity of friction will remain after every precaution has been taken in the formation of the communicating parts.'

It appears to us that some error must lurk in this passage. If an uniformity of action be produced, friction will ensue: the author has not proved that no friction will ensue; and if we doubt our own speculations and researches on this point, we have great authority to produce against the assertions in the passage just quoted. After having stated the *only Values* of certain quantities, (x, y,) that satisfy an equation involving the two conditions, uniform motion and no friction, Euler says, "*sicque prodirent duæ rotæ dentibus destitutæ: ac propter ea fieri nequit, ut utrique conditioni præscriptæ satisfiat.*"—Again; "*Quoniam autem fieri nequit, ut motus utriusque rotæ reddetur uniformis, simulque attritus in contactu dentium mutuo evitetur, videndum est utri harum duarum conditionum potius satisfieri conveniat, altera neglecta,*" &c.

If we examine the form of the teeth of which the author speaks in the first volume, (that is, when they are involutes of circles,) it will readily appear that friction must take place; and indeed, on general grounds, without entering into Euler's intricate equations, it might be shewn that, when equable motion is produced, friction cannot be avoided.

Mr. Gregory has spoken of Euler's memoir; and in dark
nguage he has commended it. We plainly declare that there
re parts in it, the meaning of which we do not comprehend:
e refer not to the symbolical operations, but to an observation
.307,) that is made subsequently to the deduction of the equa-
ion for the form of the teeth when they act without friction,
nd when the contact takes place in the line joining the centres
f the two wheels. The passage thus commences; "*Verum*
ic ingens incommodum occurrit quo hujusmodi dentes ad praxin
inutiles redduntur," &c. and the reason which he assigns
that, in the tooth of the wheel A urged by the teeth of
nother wheel B, a line drawn from the centre of the wheel
must make with the curve of its tooth an obtuse angle:
.M.C. is that angle: he then says, "*Cum igitur dentium na-*
ra non permittat, ut angulus A.M.C. ubique sit obtusus, evidens
t, fieri non posse, ut hoc modo rota alia ab alia ad motum incitetur."
e apprehend that the angle A.M.C. may be obtuse, and
nsequently that motion can be produced without friction.

The motion of bodies towards fixed centres, of bodies re-
lving in curves, and of bodies moving in constrained paths,
e treated in the division or book intitled Dynamics. The
s of the motions of the first and second kinds, at least in
e cases usually given, are assigned without difficulty; and
author has neatly and exactly demonstrated the theorems
ating to central forces, the laws of the motions of projectiles,
the oscillations of bodies in Cycloids, &c.

In treating of motion of the third kind, under which is com-
hended the rotation of bodies round a fixed Axis, he has
iled himself of the labours and inventions of the geometri-
ns of the continent, but the matter might have been better
nged and woven together. In the rotation of bodies round a
d Axis, it is the fundamental proposition that occasions the
culty of demonstration: that being once established, and
xpression for the force acting on a particle at a given dis-
e from the centre of motion being obtained, all the ordi-
propositions follow with the greatest ease; and expressi-
s for the centre of Oscillation and Gyration flow as corol-
s from the original propositions. To this subject belongs
st all that Mr. Atwood has included within his 6th section.
here are two methods,—*related* methods, however,—of
ing this part of Mechanics: if A, B, C, &c. be the parts
system, the force acting on any particle (as A) may be
d by dividing the moving force by the quantity of matter
ed, taking into consideration the difference of the velocities
which the several parts are moved: from such accelerat-
force, the velocity may be found, and the time. This is

nearly the plan pursued by Mr. Atwood in his sixth section; and it is sufficiently plain in those cases in which the parts of a system revolve round a fixed Axis. If, however, the velocities of the parts of the system do not vary as their distances from the centre of motion, (which case happens when the parts of the system are connected with flexible strings,) although the accelerating force may be found, yet the determination of the velocity will frequently depend on a difficult Integral. A confirmation of the truth of this remark may be obtained from the problem given by Mr. A. towards the end of his sixth section; which problem, in consequence of its erroneous solution, has been several times discussed in a valuable work intitled Leybourn's Mathematical Repository. Here we may remark that this problem was solved (and *exactly* solved) seventy years ago by Bernoulli. If we recollect rightly, for we cannot immediately refer to the proper documents, neither Thomas Simpson nor Atwood, nor yet the subsequent demonstrators of the problem, have noticed this circumstance. The determination of the accelerating force, then, is one method of solving this class of problems. Foreign mathematicians employ the theorem of the *Conservatio Virium Vivarum.* In Mr. Leybourn's publication, just mentioned, a partial demonstration of this theorem has been given by Mr. Dawson; and the employment of it undoubtedly leads to the solution of problems with greater facility and conciseness than the former method.

This theorem was employed by Bernoulli as a principle for the solution of various problems in Dynamics; and it is indeed most fruitful in the consequences to which it leads. The merit of this mathematician, and of Leibnitz, is not always in this country fairly and sufficiently appreciated. They were emulous, perhaps envious, of Newton; and therefore Englishmen, zealous in opposing their claims to mathematical distinction and pre-eminence, depressed their real merit beyond its just level. We still in some measure retain, and our books communicate to us, this prejudice: but it would be corrected if we now examined their writings; and we should then probably confess that, although Newton was the great*est* mathematician and philosopher, Bernoulli and Leibnitz were certainly *very great* mathematicians and philosophers.

At p. 265. cor. 5. a wrong inference is made concerning the convertibility (if we may so term it) of the centres of suspension and oscillation. If S, O, G, be the centres of suspension, oscillation, and gravity, respectively, it does not follow immediately, because $SO.\ SG = md^2 + m'd'^2 +$ &c. that, if S be transferred to O, O will be transferred to S: the thing is true, but a process or proposition is omitted: it ought to be shewn that

$SG =$

$$8G = \frac{mg^2 + m'g'^2 + \&c.}{\overline{m+m'} + \&c.\ GO}$$

', g'', &c. being the respective distances of the particles n', m'', &c. from the centre of gravity.

n the first volume of this work are contained, besides Menics properly so called, Hydrostatics, Hydrodynamics, eumatics, &c. We approve the latter part of the volume than the first. The subjects, indeed, are in their nature her vague, and bear not easily the strictness and precision mathematical discussion: but the author has not laboured h *felicity*; his article on Hydrostatics is rather meagre, l to our taste much too wordy.—Over the second volume, ich contains the account of Machines, we have whiled ay many an hour, and have gained some instruction. The wings are well executed, and, which is seldom the case, quately present to the eye the construction of the machines. Gregory, however, sometimes writes too much or not ugh: for instance, in Archimedes' screw, the mathemaprocesses, which do not go one-tenth of the way to ex-l its theory, should have been omitted, and a plain deption of the uses and mode of action of the machine alone ned:—while to aid the explanation of the machine next ibed, (the shoe-maker's implement to enable him to work upright posture,) a diagram ought to have been added.

) the second volume, and the accompanying volume of s, this publication is principally indebted for its claim to ection and patronage. It is our duty and our wish to state enforce that claim; for although, in the nicety or fastiness of criticism, we should reject some parts and alter s, yet the performance on the whole is useful and valuable, able equally to the talents and the industry of its author.

III. *New Observations on the Natural History of Bees*, by ncis Huber. Translated from the Original. 12mo. pp. 310. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1806.

ce the experiments reported in these pages appear to ave been conducted with great accuracy, and especially they lead in several instances to curious and very unexd results, we cannot refrain from expressing our surprize during a term of fifteen years, they should have remained essible to the mere English reader. This singular fact perhaps, be partly ascribed to the general diffusion of rench language among our men of science, and partly to ect of zeal in the prosecution of entomological studies.

At all events, the British public are indebted to the translator; who has executed his task with care and and who appears to be no mean proficient in that dep of Natural History to which we have just alluded.

It is well known to continental naturalists, that M. H voted a very considerable portion of his life to the observ the manners and habits of those interesting little creatur supply us with the sweets of their labours, and astonish wonders of their social economy. The patience and i which characterize his investigations, and the intimat pondence which he cultivated with Bonnet, impart a authenticity and value to his communications.

> ‘It is a remarkable circumstance (says the translator) th boured under a defect in the organs of vision, which oblige employ an assistant in his experiments. Thus these discov be said to acquire double authority. But independent of experiments are so judiciously adapted to the purposes in v the conclusions so strictly logical, that there is evidently room for error. The talents of *Francis Burneus*, this philo sistant, had long been devoted to the service of the auth after being many successive years in this manner aided i searches, was at last deprived of him by some unfortunate ac

Our object, then, is not to criticize M. Huber's stat since all the circumstances with which they are acco sufficiently remove every thing like doubt, at least from minds: but we apprehend that we shall render an ac service to many of our readers, if we present them summary of some of the principal results.

M. Huber's observations are contained in thirteen addressed to the celebrated Bonnet of Geneva: but the fest little of the liveliness or digressive reflections whic much adapted to the spirit of epistolary compositions. are rather to be considered as a series of propositions with gravity and undeviating connection with the subje deriving their interest from the striking and satisfactor mation which they convey. It may be proper to prem the experiments were all made with what the author c or *book hives*. Aware of the inconveniences attending glass, constructed on Réaumur's principles, he took small fir boxes, a foot square, and fifteen lines wi joined them by hinges, so that they could be opened a like the leaves of a book.

> ‘When using a hive of this description, (he says) we t to fix a comb in each frame, and then introduced all the be sary for each particular experiment. By opening the divisions successively, we daily inspected both surfaces of ever There was not a single cell where we could not distinctly s

passed at all times; nor a single bee, I may almost say, with which we were not particularly acquainted. Indeed, this construction is nothing more than the union of several very flat hives which may be separated. Bees, in such habitations, must not be visited before their combs are securely fixed in the frames, otherwise, by falling out they may kill or hurt them, as also irritate them to that degree that the observer cannot escape stinging, which is always painful, and sometimes dangerous: but they soon become accustomed to their situation, and in some measure tamed by it; and, in three days, we may begin to operate on the hive, to open it, remove part of the combs, and substitute others, without the bees exhibiting too formidable symptoms of displeasure. You will remember, Sir, that on visiting my retreat, I shewed you a hive of this kind that had been a long time in experiment, and how much you were surprized that the bees so quietly allowed us to open it.'

The first three letters relate to the impregnation of the queen-bee. On this part of his subject, the author first refutes the opinions of Swammerdam, Debraw, and the Lusatian observers, and then establishes, in the most convincing manner, two very important facts; namely, that the queen is impregnated by union with the male, and that this union is accomplished in the air.—Some physical and anatomical details occur on this point, which we refrain from particularizing.—Various experiments, which seem to be perfectly conclusive, are also adduced to prove that, when the sexual union is retarded beyond the twentieth day, only an imperfect impregnation takes place; and the queen, instead of laying the eggs of workers and males equally, will lay none but those of males. M. Huber candidly vows his inability to explain his own discovery. He concludes, however, that, 'as no fact in nature is unique, it is most probable that the same peculiarity will also be found in other animals. An extremely curious object of research would be to consider insects in this new point of view. I say *insects*,' continues he, 'for I do not conceive that any thing analogous will be found in other species of animals. The experiments now suggested would necessarily begin with insects the most analogous to bees; as wasps, humble bees, mason bees, all species of flies, and the like. Some experiments might also be made on butterflies; and, perhaps, an animal might be found whose retarded fecundation would be attended with the same effects as that of queen bees.'

M. Huber's researches likewise completely corroborate M. Schirach's beautiful experiments on the conversion of *common* worms into *royal* worms. It appears, however, from the details, that the German observer mistook when he affirmed that the subjects of this conversion should be three days old, since the experiment succeeds equally well with those of two days

that common bees are originally of the female sex. They
ceived from nature the germs of an ovary, but she has al
expansion only in the particular case of their receiving a c
ment while a worm. Thus it must be the peculiar object
whether the fertile workers get that aliment while worms.

'All my experiments convince me that bees, capable of l
produced in hives that have lost the queen. A great qu
royal jelly is then prepared for feeding the larvæ destined
her. Therefore, if fertile workers are produced in this
alone, it is evident their origin is only in those hives where be
the royal jelly. Towards this circumstance, I bent all my
It induced me to suspect that when bees give the *royal tr*
certain worms, they either by accident or a particular ins
principle of which is unknown to me, drop some particle
jelly into cells contiguous to those containing the worms
for queens. The larvæ of workers, that have accidentally
portions of so active an aliment, must be more or less affec
and their ovaries should acquire a degree of expansion.
expansion will be imperfect; why? because the royal food
administered only in small portions, and, besides, the lar
lived in cells of the smallest dimensions, their parts cann
beyond the ordinary proportions. Thus, the bees produce
will resemble common workers in size and all the external ch
ties. Added to that, they will have the faculty of laying s
solely from the effect of the trifling portion of royal je
with their aliment.'

Indeed, it appears from the sequel that the author s
in producing fertile workers in the hive, at pleasure.

With regard to the combats of the queens, the ma
the males, and the reception of a strange queen, M
confirms most of the observations of Réaumur, and be
[illegible] to their superior accuracy, when compared wi

'The worm of workers passes three days in the egg, five in the vermicular state, and then the bees close up its cell with a wax covering. The worm now begins spinning its coccoon, in which operation thirty-six hours are consumed. In three days, it changes to a nymph, and passes six days in this form. It is only on the twentieth day of its existence, counting from the moment the egg is laid, that it attains the fly state.

'The royal worm also passes three days in the egg, and is five a worm; the bees then close its cell; and it immediately begins spinning the coccoon, which occupies twenty-four hours. The tenth and eleventh day it remains in complete repose, and even sixteen hours of the twelfth. Then the transformation to a nymph takes place, in which state four days and a third are passed. Thus it is not before the sixteenth day that the perfect state of queen is attained.

'The male worm passes three days in the egg, six and a half as a worm, and metamorphoses into a fly on the twenty-fourth day after the egg is laid.'

In the course of his examinations, M. Huber discovered that the worms both of workers and males fabricate complete coccoons in their cells; whereas the royal larvæ, from the figure of their cells, are obliged to leave their covering open behind, and thus permit the first royal nymph that is transformed to attack the rest, and sting them to death, which it never fails to do. That this singular provision in favour of *monarchy* results from the form of the cells, and not from blind instinct, is obvious from the following simple experiment: when royal worms were put into cylindrical glass cells, or portions of glass tubes resembling common cells, they spun complete coccoons; and when common worms were put into very wide cells, they left the coccoon open.

The author's observations on the formation of swarms mostly coincide with those of Réaumur. The latter had suspected that the old queens sometimes conduct the young swarms; and, from M. Huber's experience, it appears incontestible that 'the old queen always conducts the first swarm: but never quits the hive before depositing eggs in the royal cells, from which other queens will proceed after her departure.' These cells appear to be an object of very particular care to the remaining bees, who prevent the young queens successively hatched from leaving them, unless at an interval of several days between each. It is also worthy of remark that young queens conducting swarms from their native hive are still in a virgin state.

Without greatly exceeding our limits, we cannot enter into the illustration of these important particulars in the history of the bee; neither can we dwell on the extraordinary effects of the royal food and treatment, which invite to new views of animal economy.—Amputation of the wings was not found to affect the fruitfulness of queens, but a privation of both the antennæ produced consequences which could scarcely have been divined.

'On the fifth of September, (says the author) I cut both off a queen that laid the eggs of males only, and put her into the hive immediately after the operation. From this moment there was a great alteration in her conduct. She traversed the combs with extraordinary vivacity. Scarcely had the workers time to separate and recede before her; she dropped her eggs, without attending to deposit them in any cell. The hive not being very populous, part was without comb. Either she seemed particularly earnest to repair, and long remained motionless. She appeared to avoid the bees; however, several workers followed her into this solitude, and treated her with the most evident respect. She seldom required honey from them, but, when that occurred, directed her trunk with an uncertain kind of feeling, sometimes on the head and sometimes on the limbs of the workers, and if it did reach their mouths, it was by chance. At other times she returned upon the combs, then quitted them to traverse the glass sides of the hive; and always dropped eggs during her various motions. Sometimes she appeared tormented with the desire of leaving her habitation. She rushed towards the opening, and entered the glass tube adapted there; but the external orifice being too small, after fruitless exertion, she returned. Notwithstanding these symptoms of delirium, the bees did not cease to render her the same attention as they ever pay to their queens, but this one received it with indifference.'

In his concluding letter, M. Huber recommends the use of leaf hives, and a *moderate* participation in the produce of the labours of bees, as the most infallible means of preserving the stock. A certain quantity of honey and wax, he observes, will be best secured by a number of hives, rather than by plundering a few of a great proportion of their treasures. He is likewise of opinion that more hives may be kept in a country abounding in meadows, and where black grain is cultivated, than in a district of vineyards or corn.

The tranlator has thrown some of the anatomical details into an Appendix; particularly one passage, which states the discovery of a singular fact in the procreative commerce of these animals. Such discussions, however, are adapted solely to the contemplation of the physiologist. We shall only add that the volume offers to the reader, in a small compass, a considerable quantity of important information; and that the author's conjectures, whenever they occur, are characterized by good sense and modesty.

Art IV. *Elements of Intellectual Philosophy*; or, an Analysis of the Powers of the Human Understanding; tending to ascertain the Principles of a Rational Logic By R. E. Scott, A.M., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University and King's College, Aberdeen. 8vo. pp 491. 9s. Boards. Constable and Co., Edinburgh; Cadell and Davies, London.

With the primary intention of forming only a text-book for part of a course of Academical Lectures, Mr. Scott enlarged his plan and augmented his materials until the result has been the present volume. We infer, therefore, that, as it is now offered to us, it contains all the elucidation and explanation which the Professor has been accustomed orally to bestow on the abstruse subject of Intellectual Philosophy. He found reason to believe, he says, ' that a short Treatise, which should contain an Analysis of the Powers of the Human Un-
lerstanding, tending to illustrate the Principles of sound Rea-
oning and scientific Investigation, might be a desirable ac-
uisition to Students in general: because the Elementary Sys-
ems of Logic which have yet appeared, are almost all founded
pon the metaphysical subtleties of the schoolmen; and have
tle reference to the present advanced state of Intellectual
hilosophy. Actuated by these considerations, the Author
resumes to offer to the Public the following attempt to supply
desideratum in Elementary Science; which may prove of some
se to the Student, till an abler hand shall undertake the exe-
ution of the task.'

Certainly, this work ought to be highly valued by the public,
it can occupy the place and discharge the duties of an ele-
entary system of logic. We concede to the author, that for-
er treatises are founded on the metaphysical subtleties of the
hoolmen: that is, are generally either false or fanciful, or
th. Many of these subtleties were verbal, general terms be-
g used without precise signification, or, which is the same
ing, without preceding definition. These faults, then, ought
ost carefully to be avoided in a treatise which professes to be
med in direct opposition to such a system of subtleties: yet,
thout meaning to say that Mr. Scott endeavours to perplex
readers with false refinements or imposing terms, we must
nark that he leaps at once *in medias res*, and, in his first
lf page, distributes the objects of human knowlege into ma-
ial and intellectual, and gives the distinguishing character-
cs of matter and of mind. It is not our intention to con-
vert the justness of the distribution, nor to question the
lity of general terms: but, when such distributions and terms
cur in the beginning of an elementary treatise, the young
student

student who is solicitous to acquire notions, and not words, must find himself in as great a dilemma as if he suddenly plunged into the forms, accidents, and essences of the metaphysical schoolmen.—The evil of which we complain is very common, and demands a remedy. Are we never to have a Horn-book of Metaphysics, or a Grammar of Intellectual Philosophy? Such an introductory work is very necessary; and no Professor, whatever be his abilities, should despise the construction of it as beneath his exertion. If difficulties rouse ambition, we apprehend that no inconsiderable difficulties await the composition of a plain and perspicuous Grammar of the human mind.

Of metaphysical science, Reid and Dugald Stewart have familiarized and simplified the study, and have laid down most excellent rules for its cultivation. These writers, however, suppose their readers to possess some knowlege of metaphysics, and write principally to the learned: but a student requires a treatise springing from lower beginnings; in which many pages should be turned over before a faculty or mental power was mentioned. Almost all authors who write on Mind are too prone to talk of powers and faculties, and suddenly to parcel out the Intellect into conception, perception, abstraction, &c.— in fact, to take a theory for granted which it is their business to prove.

In Metaphysics, as in Physics, a just philosophy teaches us to attend first to facts, or mental phænomena: in our farther progress, those mental phænomena which appear mixed are to be separated into simpler phænomena, and the laws of their composition are to be observed; and since it will be necessary to class them, terms of classification must be invented. The introduction of such terms, however, ought to be made with the greatest caution, and most scrupulously: because terms, having associated meanings, are apt to introduce foreign notions; and, in their new alliance, to impart those which are derived from subjects to which they had previously been applied. Lord Bacon finely illustrates the nature of the operation of words, when he says that, "like to the Tartar's Bow, they shoot back on the Understanding."

The exact observation and register of the phænomena of the Mind, and their subsequent classification, form not an easy task: in what treatise is it completely effected? Writers find greater facility in constructing sentences with general and abstract terms: but this is not to explain. The invention of terms may assist and expedite explanation, but explanation can never be involved in a term. That which is simple, and that which is to be proposed as an elementary truth, may, whatever be the subject of discussion, be stated in ordinary words. We feel at once embarrassed and indignant when a treatise, in its very outset, speaks of the qualities of matter and the faculties of mind, and informs us that Consciousness is the *faculty* by which we know the *powers or faculties* of the mind: that Perception is the *faculty* by which we know the *qualities of matter*, &c.

The result of proof should not be prematurely introduced into the demonstrative process. If the terms Consciousness, Perception, Conception, &c. be not mere terms of classification, and if they be made to stand for mental powers and faculties, the existence of such powers and faculties should be rendered evident or probable, before their agency is employed in the solution of phænomena. We feel, hear, think, wish: these acts, if any, are real: but that these acts arise from the operation of powers is either an hypothesis, or a figurative or illustrative mode of expression, or it is the result of reasonings. If the first interpretation be admitted, the author who employs such terms should distinctly explain why he uses them: if the latter interpretation, then much ground of discussion ought to be passed over, before the mention of such terms is introduced.

Few, if any, metaphysical treatises are exempt from the preceding reprehension; and the present work suggested the necessity of inflicting it. Science is said to be advanced by the increasing perfection and dextrous combination of general terms: but Metaphysical Science, in our judgment, would be tending to improvement, if it condescended to use words of ordinary occurrence, of precise meaning, and above all not figurative.

Professor Dugald Stewart, in his Philosophy of the Human Mind, noticing a difference between the mere acts of wishing, thinking, &c. and an observance and attention to the order and laws of such acts, introduced a distinction between Consciousness and Attention, which, for the reasons alleged by that eminent writer, appears to us to be just. Of phænomena classed together, one part differs from another; and of this difference there ought to be some note. Philosophizing, or using language offered to us in analogical subjects, we may say that this difference of phænomena arises from different faculties. Mr. Scott, however, dissents from the necessity of making this distinction:

> 'Mr. Stewart (he remarks) considers intellectual processes of this nature as objects, not of *consciousness* but of *attention*; but to me there appears no necessity for calling in the aid of this new faculty. That ingenious philosopher has given a variety of interesting illustrations

relative to trains of thought, which certainly are daily passin through our minds, but which are never recollected; because, on account of their great rapidity, they are not objects of *attention*, or as should prefer to say, of *consciousness*. Such, for example, is th train of thought by which we are led to judge of the distances of visble objects, and which includes in it a comparison of various part ic lars, such as the apparent magnitude of the object, its distinct or obscurity, the brightness of its colours, the inclination of the of the eyes, and change of conformation of the eye itself. In instance, and in some of the others mentioned by Mr. Stewar may be remarked, that the inactivity of Consciousness is to be asc ed, not only to the rapidity of the intellectual process, but to its having been familiarized to the mind in early life, before faculty of Consciousness came into exercise. In other instances, p ticularly such as are ascribed to the mechanical agency of habit, where a musician comes, by long practice, to perform a piece music with such facility as to be unconscious of any voluntary effo the inactivity of Consciousness seems wholly due to the rapidity the mental exertions; and Mr. Stewart appears to have been pecu arly successful in illustrating the true nature of such phenomen which had been most unphilosophically ascribed to the influence of a undefined and misunderstood principle called Habit. But, for th ingenious remarks of this philosopher, upon these interesting topics we refer to his own work, chapter second.'

We see not much of confutation in this passage: the autho merely says that he differs from Mr. Stewart: but in a subsequent part he endeavours to put in motion a greater force o argument:

'Still, however, (he is speaking of Mr. Stewart's Illustrations though I admit the justness and the utility of these illustrations, can see no necessity for assigning to the mind a peculiar faculty calle Attention, whose office it is to take previous cognizance of ou various thoughts, in order that they may be again recognized by th memory. I can find no peculiar objects for the employment of thi faculty, which do not belong to some one or other of those whos existence seems to be certainly established. Whatever is afterward remembered is either an object of the senses, that is, of the facultie of sensation and perception; or, it is some mental abstraction, som real or fancied relation, some object of consciousness or conception in short, of some one or other of those mental faculties which ar contained in the enumerations of Pneumatology, without, however resorting to this disputed one of Attention. Thus, the Attention, i it be a peculiar faculty, must be a generally assisting faculty, whicl comes occasionally to the help of all the others, to give them clearc views of their several objects.

'Instead of adopting this conclusion, I would (*should*) be inclined t reject the existence of the faculty altogether, and consider the meaning of the term *Attention*, or of *doing a thing attentively*, to be no mor than a sedulous and steady exertion of the particular mental powe then in question, whether it be Perception, Abstraction, Combination

tion, or any other. To assert the contrary doctrine, appears to be nearly as inconsistent as to to say, that, when a man lifts a burden of a hundred pounds weight, he must exert a muscular power, different in kind, as well as in degree, from that by which he is enabled to lift a weight of ten pounds. The rapid currents of thought which pass in our minds, generally unknown to ourselves, and which afford the most plausible argument for the necessity of a peculiar faculty, of the name of Attention, appear to me to be proper objects, not of Attention, but of Consciousness, and, as such, have been considered in Chapter 1st.'

In the first part of this quotation, the author either gives up the point in dispute, or we see not his meaning. The Attention, he says, if it be a *peculiar faculty*, must be a *generally assisting faculty*:—the mode of operation is not the real subject of discussion, it is the Independence and separate Existence of the faculty.

A subsequent passage in the work contains a piece of historical criticism which deserves notice. It is shewn by an extract from Condillac, that this author, previously to Mr. Stewart, considered Attention as a peculiar faculty of the human mind.

Besides the positions which we have mentioned, this first chapter, *on Consciousness*, contains others that excite our doubt, and would, if our limits permitted, provoke us to discussion. Consciousness being, by Mr. Scott's definition, the *power* by which the various *powers* of the mind are made known to us, he says that this power is denied to the lower animals: what must be the nature of the proof that can establish this fact?

The second Chapter treats of *Sensation*; and here, in noticing Dr. Reid's distinction between perception and sensation, the author remarks: 'According to this distinction, the very essence of a sensation consists in its being felt; and, when it is not felt, it ceases to exist, and has no longer any object; while the objects of perception have a permanent existence without us, whether they are perceived or not.'—Now it seems to us that the latter part of this sentence is not a fair inference from Dr. Reid's opinion; and after the convincing arguments of Berkeley on this point, we were rather surprised at meeting with such a statement.—On the subject, too, of the primary and secondary qualities of bodies, Mr. Scott is again at variance with Berkeley:

> 'If it be asked (he says) what I mean by the '*smell* of a rose,' it is evident that, in the general acceptation of the phrase, this denotes a sensation of the mind; as appears from the epithets 'fragrant, agreeable,' &c. which are applicable to it, and which alone have meaning when referred to a sentient being. Along, however, with this sensation of an agreeable odour, there is conjoined a perception, by which we form a certain notion of that quality in the rose which is the

cause

> cause of its odour; which perception is totally distinct from the sensation; for it cannot be said to be agreeable or otherwise, and it has an external object, whose existence does not depend upon the act of the mind as the sensation does. Yet we have no name whereby to distinguish the object of this perception, unless that which more properly belongs to the accompanying sensation, viz. 'the *smell* of the rose;' a defect of language, which is no doubt the source of much ambiguity.'

We very much doubt whether the mind forms a perception of that quality of the Rose which is the cause of the fragrance; and why is it necessary to form such a perception? If it be not necessary, we do not want a term to distinguish the object of perception; and why invent terms that introduce theories and bewilder the mind?

A little farther on, we find this passage:

> 'Thus it appears, that language affords, in general, but a single term whereby to distinguish both the sensation and its accompanying perception; and that this term is chiefly appropriated either to the sensation or perception, according as the attention is most engrossed by the one or the other. Upon this circumstance appears to be founded a distinction of the qualities of body into two kinds, called by Mr. Locke, *primary* and *secondary*. The reality of the distinction I would place in this, that the primary qualities are those of which we have a distinct perception, and but a slight sensation; while, of the secondary, our perception is but obscure, and we have a strong sensation, which chiefly arrests our attention. Hence, the names of the primary qualities of body more usually refer to the perception by which they are made known to us; while those of the secondary qualities have more properly a reference to the accompanying sensation.'

We cannot undertake to controvert these positions, since we do not clearly apprehend their meaning. What is the *slight* sensation of a primary quality?

In the 3rd Chapter, on *Perception*, an account is given of the various theories that have been formed respecting Perception, from Aristotle to Hume: but we meet with little that is novel in this account, and other authors have on the same subject written more fully. In mentioning Berkeley, Mr. Scott falls into a low expression; 'Berkeley, (he says,) though he denies the existence of a material world, yet as became *his Cloth*,' &c.—After having stated Reid's account the phænomena of perception, he proposes to make a slight alteration in it; and he wishes it to be affirmed that, in every perception of an external object of sense, we find; 1st, Some conception or notion of the object perceived; and 2dly, strong and irresistible belief of its present existence, which not resolvable into reasoning, or any other kind of evidence.—

This statement resolves the belief of external objects and of a material world into an intuitive truth:—but, in perceiving, are we really sensible of the operation of this strong belief? Inquiry may arise on this point.

In treating of *Abstraction*, (Chap. IV.) the author is led to the controversy between the Nominalists, Realists, and Conceptualists.

> 'If,' says he, 'the ideal theory be relinquished, as I think it must, in consequence of the reasonings of Dr. Reid, the system of the Realists falls to the ground, or at least becomes identified with that of the Conceptualists; for I do not suppose that any philosopher would now be inclined to revive the system of Plato concerning the eternal and independent existence of universal archetypes, or ideas, after the patterns of which all individual things have been formed. The only rational controversy, that now remains, appears to be, Whether is the mind capable of attaching distinct notions, or conceptions, to those general and abstract terms which it so frequently employs? or is it incapable of forming such notions, so that, when it employs general terms, these are to be considered rather as signs than accurate expressions of our thoughts, and if any distinct notion is annexed to them, it must be that of an individual of the species which they are employed to express?'

As the question is important, Mr. Scott proceeds particularly to examine it; and the first section of the discussion treats of the nature and origin of abstract and general terms. We experienced, however, very little satisfaction from this examination; and not being distinctly apprized of the object of the author's reasonings, and certainly not convinced by them, we felt rather surprised at suddenly arriving at this sentence: 'the doctrine, which I have been endeavouring to illustrate,' &c.

The origin of generic terms has been successfully assigned by Philosophers. Terms appropriated to Individuals are extended to whole classes of like Individuals; and propositions that are true with the generic term are true when the term is restricted to denote an Individual of the genus. Many propositions are true with the generic term, because they have been proved true of a vast number of the Individuals, or because there seems no sufficient reason why that which is true for one Individual should not be true for like Individuals. All bodies fall towards the earth; observation has verified the assertion in a great variety of instances, and daily experience confirms it; we can distinctly assign the causes, when phænomena happen anomalous to this law: but there must be numerous bodies that are never observed to fall, and with which no experiment was ever made; yet the proposition is asserted of these, because no reason can be assigned why they should not follow the law. In the above and in similar propositions, however, we cannot be said to annex precise ideas to the generic term: if controversy, indeed, or the necessity of explanation, forces us into illustration, we must enumerate; in the general proposition we should, instead of the term body, name a stone, or an orange, or a guinea; and in these specifications we should have distinct notions of the terms employed or the things specified. With general terms, the case is different; and on this account Condillac and Dugald Stewart have asserted that generic terms are mere signs of convenience, which we acquire the habit of employing with accuracy, but to which no distinct notion can be annexed. This position is controverted by Mr. Scott; who remarks, after having made an extract from Stewart relative to this subject:

> 'In opposition to this ingenious philosopher, I take upon me to affirm, that though generic terms are very convenient and useful signs, both for communicating our thoughts, and giving them precision; they are by no means indispensably requisite for enabling us to speculate concerning general classes of objects. Thus, I think, though language had contained no such generic term as *man*, we might have entered into many very useful speculations concerning the whole human race: and, in like manner, though we had wanted the words *plant* and *mineral*, we should not have been entirely ignorant of the general properties of the vegetable and fossil kingdoms. Nay, I maintain, that we are actually without such generic terms, in many departments where scientific speculation has been most successfully conducted. Thus, I know of no term, in any language, that properly defines and comprehends the objects of astronomical science. The term *stars* excludes the sun and moon, and perhaps the planets and comets; and hence, in giving a brief explanation of the objects of this science, we are obliged to make use of a circumlocution, viz. *the heavenly bodies*. But certainly a circumlocution is not *a term*, but a clumsy substitute for one, which necessity prompts us to employ. I would likewise observe, that the sense in which generic terms are understood, is by no means fixed and precisely limited; so that to one person they may indicate all the individuals of a certain subject of speculation, while to another their meaning may be more circumscribed. Thus, many writers upon Pneumatology employ the term *mind*, as comprehending not only the intellectual part of man, but also the Divine mind, and every spiritual being; while others limit it to the human mind alone; and are, therefore, without any generic appellation for all the objects of this science. The conclusion I would deduce from these illustrations, is, that generic terms, though extremely useful and convenient, are by no means essential to general speculations, or to the formation of general notions.
>
> 'The next point which it is of importance to examine, is, When we reason concerning classes or genera, are the objects of our attention 'merely signs?' that is, have generic terms any distinct signification,

tion, of which a clear conception can be formed or not? And here, too, I must dissent from the doctrine laid down by Mr. Stewart; for I cannot conceive in what manner accurate reasonings can be carried on, or speculation successfully pursued, by means of terms to which we are incapable of annexing a distinct meaning; insomuch, that when casual association does lead us to annex some meaning to them, viz. that of an individual of the class which they denote, this 'has rather a tendency to disturb, than to assist us in our reasoning.'

'The meaning that, according to my apprehension, is attached to a generic term, is an inclusive notion of all the individuals which that term is intended to comprehend. Thus, the word *tree* includes in its meaning all those vegetables to which that name is usually applied; the word *man* comprehends all the individuals of the human race; and so forth This account of the matter is perfectly agreeable to the origin of these terms, as above detailed, where we find a name successively applied to a variety of individuals, on account of a general resemblance observed among them; and consequently, when the name comes to be again employed, the mind naturally attaches to it the notion, not of one, but of many individuals.

'Here, perhaps, it may be objected, that the mind is incapable of forming a notion of such a multiplicity of individuals as must, according to this account of the matter, be conceived to be attached to generic terms. But, in reply to this objection, I would ask, are we capable of distinctly comprehending what is meant by the term *forest*, for example? And I suppose it will be granted that we are; in thus far, at least, that we understand by it, a great collection of trees; although it would be absurd to suppose that any definite number of trees must be thought of when we use the term. Precisely of the same kind, I conceive to be the notion which we attach to the term *tree*, viz. an indefinite number of that kind of plants to which the name can be properly applied. Hence, I would describe the notion which the mind attaches to a generic term, to be a general indefinite notion of the various individuals to which the term extends.'

'A general indefinite notion of the various Individuals, to which the generic term may be applied', appears to us a very loose mode of expression; and, to retort on the author his own words, we have a very indefinite notion of his meaning.

In section 3rd of this chapter, on the ambiguity of abstract and general terms, the author continues to dissent from Professor Stewart's opinion. This latter writer, a Nominalist, instances Algebra as affording the strongest confirmation of the system of Nominalism: Mr. Scott quotes a passage from the Professor's Philosophy of the Human Mind, and then subjoins the following: but whether this comment was intended to explain Algebra, or to refute Mr. Stewart, we cannot determine.

'The algebraic symbols are doubtless of very general application; but I cannot help thinking that their meaning admits of being very precisely defined. Thus, I conceive the import of the letters *a*, *b*, *d*. &c. which it employs, to be quantity, (*i. e.* what is susceptible being numbered, or measured with accuracy), considered in general, or according to some particular limits pointed out by the terms of the problem; + denotes addition; − subtraction; and so on. And if we ever wholly lose sight of these significations during an analytical process, the certainty of the result is nothing dissimilar to what happens in other cases of practical facility, which have usually been explained by a recourse to the principle of habit, and of which the real nature has been so philosophically explained by Mr. Stewart himself.'

Professor Scott has not sufficiently noticed the discovery and theory of David Hartley. We speak not of his Vibrations, but of a very curious mental law, the law of Association, which was pointed out and established by that philosopher, in a most masterly manner. When the present author treats of *Association*, (Chap. V.) he rejects the phrase *Association of Ideas*, and even proposes to substitute for Association, *Combination*. We dislike both alterations. Why exclude a convenient term, *idea*, because there have been absurd ideal systems? *Combination* refers to a faculty and active power of calling up ideas, and of arranging them. *Association* ought to stand for that observed law of the mind, according to which, of two ideas before associated, one that is impressed suggests and calls up the other. According to the technical manner of Hartley, if *A* and *B* have been associated, *A* impressed will raise up *B*. If this faculty or Act be involuntary, *Association* may properly stand for it; and then *Combination* may be used to express an active faculty.

Many other subjects usually introduced into metaphysical treatises are discussed by the author in chapters vi, vii, and viii, on *Conception or Imagination*, on *Memory*, and on *Reason*. An Appendix also contains three Chapters on *Mathematical Reasoning*, on *the Induction of Physical Science*, and on *the Induction of Metaphysics and other Sciences*. If we were not tired of objecting, we could make several additional objections against the arguments and reasonings advanced on these points. That Mr. Scott has derived considerable information from the able treatises of Reid and Stewart, we can have little doubt: but he seems not to have obtained an aid that has enabled him to make conquests in the wild and dark regions of metaphysics. Indeed, the science seems to have gone back under his guidance. For several judicious distinctions we are indebted to Mr. Stewart, but these the present author wishes to controvert, and he proposes some new terms and distinctions of his own, which (in turn) we think ought to be rejected. Metaphysical treatises are principally deficient in plainness and simplicity; and this defect is not remedied in the work before us. We now quit it, therefore, not without some degree of satisfaction on being relieved from the toil of a perusal which has seldom been invigorated by the stimulus of cogent argument and refutation, or enlivened by the light of new truths and brilliant illustrations.

Art. V. *The Nature and Properties of Wool illustrated:* with a Description of the English Fleece. By John Luccock, Woolstapler. 12mo. pp. 360. 5s. 6d. Boards. Harding.

A TREATISE on wool by a professed woolstapler is a sort of *ex cathedrâ* publication; and the implied qualifications of the writer, united with the great national importance of the subject, must impart to it no inconsiderable portion of interest. We need not remark that, from the remotest periods, mankind have been acquainted with the value of wool-bearing animals, and that the most antient records allude to the methods of manufacturing their fleeces. It may be curious, however, to trace the history of cultivated wool through different periods and among different nations; though no discussions of this kind are necessary to persuade us of the great utility of this article to man; nor to convince us of the advantages which may accrue from an examination of its nature and properties, from a full investigation of the circumstances of its growth, and from inviting the grazier, in conjunction with the manufacturer, to consider the best methods of augmenting the quantity and improving the quality of our native produce.

In this light, Mr. Luccock's book is better intitled to notice than many volumes of a larger and more pompous appearance, and perhaps to a more minute review than our limited space and diversified occupation will enable us to bestow. He seems to us to have that enthusiasm for his profession, which induces him to surpass ordinary woolstaplers by studying every branch of his business with scientific assiduity. A mass of information is collected; and various hints are suggested which merit the consideration of the agriculturist, the manufacturer, and the statesman: but we think that he is sometimes too prolix, and that the whole volume wants arrangement and subdivision. His five sections (I. of wool in general; II. of cultivated wool; III. of the essential qualities of wool; IV. of the wool of England; and V. concluding remarks) should have been made into so many chapters, and these should have been broken into sections, including the multitude of subordinate subjects which are introduced; and to the whole an index of reference three kinds of wool passed immediately under his eye ; that his accounts of the fleeces of those parts which he h personally visited are derived from the best local descrip In an inquiry of so wide a range, in which precise data a easily collected, he does not presume on perfect accuracy if his statements be sufficiently correct for general purpos object is answered.

Before the author proceeds to a description of the es qualities of wool,—of the circumstances on which its adap to manufactures depends,—of the peculiarities of fleeces,—and to state the number which this island pro (points which, to the best of his knowlege, he tells us, hitherto been unattempted,) he offers some introductory r on wool in general, including the history of wool-bearin mals, and of cultivated wool. The writings of Drs. A son and Parry, M. Lasteyrie, &c. have furnished him materials for this part of his work ; and, if he doe particularly quote them, he generally acknowleges his o tions.

Since wool, 'as an article of manufacture, is kno assume *at least* the second place in the rank of importan it furnishes a large portion of our population with em ment ; as it is closely connected with our comfort, and many of the ornaments of social life ;' and since it is an obje of an extensive commerce, the author cannot help wishin our fleeces possessed all the excellencies which the climat the circumstances of the country will admit ; — and that we ourselves furnish the raw material for our domestic produ instead of seeking to import it from foreign and rival n pending for a supply of the raw material on the political good humour of our neighbours.

Some physiologists have supposed that the first man was black; and Mr. L. is inclined to believe that this was the colour of the first sheep, or something nearly approaching to it. He also supposes that Jacob, when he superintended the flock of his father-in-law, Laban, was a skilful breeder; who took proper measures for producing a ring-streaked or mottled race, 'while he concealed the superiority of his knowlege and the means which he adopted.' A variety in the flock being once obtained, it became an object of importance to increase it; and in a course of years, 'the alteration of the colour of wool taking the line of the richest soils,' white fleeces were produced. As an article to be dyed, and afterward woven in the loom, its whiteness was of such essential importance, that, if the first race of sheep were black, we cannot be surprized that the new variety obtained an universal preference over the original breed.—How far this account partakes of mere hypothesis, we shall not attempt to decide; nor shall we endeavour minutely to trace the history of manufactural wool among the most antient Asiatic nations, and to follow its course through Egypt, Greece, and the Roman Empire, till we arrive at its present state in the communities of Europe. It is a curious fact that the Romans established a manufactory of woollens at Winchester, which was so extensive as to supply their army; and there is reason for believing that the trade which they introduced into Britain was not neglected by the native inhabitants, for the first nine hundred years of the Christian era. The long Spanish wool was imported into this country so early as the 12th century; and we find that, since the days of Edward III., 'British fleeces were admirably adapted to the kind of cloth which was in greatest request, though now they are generally unequal to the production of that which is sought after. Then it was necessary to provide a channel by which the annual surplus of our wool might be vended; now it is as absolutely required of us to supply their deficiency.' Mr. L. investigates the causes of this change in the state of the woollen manufacture; and he calls on those who are interested, to furnish a remedy adequate to the cure of the evil. We cannot present the reader with his minute details concerning the growth of wool; nor enumerate those various particulars which constitute the sub-divisions of his subject, and which are especially interesting to graziers and clothiers: but it was some recompence to us, after having toiled through a long chapter, to be assured 'that improvement must shortly be made in the fleeces of our country, which will surprise by their magnitude, and gratify by the rapidity of their succession.'

The Section on the essential Qualities of Wool informs us that 'in this country there are three general kinds of fleeces, and each of them is sorted in a manner different from the others. The finest includes all those adapted to the fabrication of woollen articles, and comprehends by far the larger proportion of the wool of the island; the second comprehends the longer pile, that which is suitable to worsted goods; and the other is confined to wool of a medium length, that which is used in the hose trade.'—To this section is subjoined 'a Table shewing the quality of English wool, arranged in classes according to the fineness of the pile;' and we shall abstract the general view which this table presents:

'TOTAL VALUE OF ENGLISH WOOL.

245,290	Packs of short Wool at	£15		£3,679,350
137,228	Do.	long Do.	13	1,783,964
10,718	Do.	lamb's Do.	10	107,180
393,2 ,6	Packs.		Total	£5,570,494

The Slaughter of short-wooled Sheep is	4,221,748 per ann.
Carrion of Do.	211,087
Slaughter of long-wooled Sheep	1,180,413
Carrion of Do.	59,020
Slaughter of Lambs	1,400,560
Carrion of Do.	70,028
	7,142,856
The number of Lambs yeaned per ann. is	7,002,802
Annual decrease,	140,054
	7,142,856'

A summary of the contents of the 4th Section, in which the author examines into the produce of long and short wool in the several districts and counties of England, is exhibited at the end of the work in a long table, in a number of distinct columns; the 1st giving the district, the 2d the county, the 3d the number of acres, the 4th the proportionate stock per acre, the 5th the number of sheep, the 6th the weight of the fleece, and the 7th the number of packs. On this table Mr. L. remarks:

'The whole quantity of fleece-wool produced in England, according to the table, is three hundred thirty four thousand four hundred and thirty packs, of which rather more than one third is adapted to the comb; the remainder is wrought upon the card and fabricated into the different articles of woollen goods. But to this quantity of carding wool, obtained from fleeces naturally short, must be added that proportion of skin wool, which is not long enough to be employed in the manufacture of worsteds. This is the aggregate of several particulars specified in the table, and amounts to forty two thousand five hundred and fifty packs.'

According to Mr. Luccock's reckoning, the quantity of wool produced in England and Wales is much smaller than it has been commonly estimated; he observes, however,

'I do not feel anxious, lest this diminution of sheep should prove detrimental to the woollen manufacture; because, though the flocks of England are not so numerous as formerly, yet those of Scotland and Ireland seem to be increasing in a rapid manner; and in proportion as the waste land of both countries is brought into a state of cultivation, it produces a more useful fleece. Even in England and Wales we have more than three millions of acres capable of being improved, and carrying a more numerous stock; we have two millions of sheep whose fleeces are scarcely wool, and which might be brought to contribute their share to support the woollen manufacture, and to increase the wealth of the country.'

He thus proceeds in his concluding reflections:

'From the general view which we have taken, the English fleece appears susceptible of very great improvement. There are but few tracts of land, and these comparatively small ones, on which it has attained a moderate degree of perfection. Long wool, though not possessed of all the excellent qualities which ought to be communicated to it, is in general, well adapted to those inferior worsted goods, in the manufacture of which it is used, and also to those coarser kinds of woollen articles, which require a long nap and are calculated to produce an extraordinary degree of warmth. But a very small quantity only of this pile, is applicable to superior articles; a more attenuated one might be produced, and would be found of great value. It must be observed with regret that, during the last hundred years, the manufacture of worsted goods has greatly declined. If it be desirable to revive it, care must be employed to render them more thin, flexible and soft: to give them a greater similitude to the fabrics of cotton, or of silk; to qualify them to endure the rivalry of the first of these articles both at home and abroad. But whoever examines the manner in which the manufacture of cotton and that of worsted are conducted, will not only observe a great difference in favour of one, but will almost despair of the revival of the other. In the worsted manufacture only small capitals are employed; no extensive works are constructed for carrying them on; the machines made use of, are simple and old; the masters in general have but little dead stock, and of course, a small stake in the country;

try; the workmen are prejudiced in favour of old modes, jealous of innovation, always obstinate, and till their spirits were broken by distress, they were too commonly vain of their importance, captious, and turbulent. There is in this branch of manufacture but little speculation; and genius lies dormant. There are few articles made now which were not fabricated and in fashion the century before last. But in the manufacture of cotton every thing wears just the opposite appearance; there we observe large capitals, immense establishments, a highly speculative spirit, great confidence, and a combination of all the productions of modern genius. We notice a race of workmen also generally industrious, punctual, and contented: the articles which their looms produce are ever new, and ever varied. The effects which a flourishing manufacture produces, and those which result from a dispirited and dying trade, are obvious to every one, who can compare the state of Manchester with that of Norwich; of Glasgow with Sudbury; the county of Lancaster with Suffolk, or that of Renfrew with Northamptonshire.

'The short wool of England is still in a wretched state, for although some noble efforts to improve it have excited emulation and activity, yet, when compared with what remains to be accomplished, but little has been already effected. When looking over the preceding table, we are surprised at the number of sheep in every district, which might be exchanged for a better stock; and with respect to their coats, no woolstapler, I am persuaded, who has any general acquaintance with the English fleece, will think me extravagant when I conjecture that of the fifteen millions of short stapled ones, which the kingdom produces, there are not five hundred thousand which even border upon perfection.'

Mr. Luccock finishes with accusing us of national negligence and folly, for neglecting the growth of fine wool; and he recommends the encouragement of this fine material, by imposts on the article of foreign production. Advice is given to graziers and woolstaplers; he thinks that the price of wool ought to be gradually augmented; and he hopes that the interests of the grower and manufacturer will be so balanced as to insure the combined exertions of both.

The language of this volume is an object of inferior consideration: but Mr. L. is occasionally very pompous, as at p. 11, where he calls an orchard 'the precious precincts of Pomona;' and in other places his style soars above his subject. If his facts be correct, however, and his reasoning just, the merit of his work will not be affected by these trivial matters. At least he has directed the attention of the public to a subject of great magnitude, and for the labour which he has bestowed on it he is intitled to thanks.

ART. VI. *Religious Enthusiasm considered;* in Eight Sermons preached before the University of Oxford in the Year 1802, at the Lecture founded by John Bampton, A. M., Canon of Salisbury. By George Frederic Nott, B. D., Fellow of All Soul's College. 8vo. pp. 502. 8s. Boards. Rivingtons.

SOME distinguished members of the Established Church have contemplated with alarm the growth of Methodism, and have regarded the circumstances under which this sect arose, and now maintains its influence, as matters which require the most serious discussion. Mr. Nott being of this number, he avails himself of the opportunity of the Bampton Lecture,—one of the prescribed subjects of which is "the confutation of heretics and schismatics,"—to enter the lists against the advocates of Wesley and Whitfield; to discuss the merits of the methodistic system; and to defend the Apostolic authority of the Established Church against those who arrogate to themselves a right of separating from her, and of instituting a new communion. For this purpose he takes a wide field, argues with all the subtlety of a legal advocate, and from his premises deduces conclusions which, if admitted, must restore all conscientious methodists to the bosom of the National Church. We are apprehensive, however, that Mr. Nott's mode of reasoning is better adapted to flatter the hierarchy, than to gain on the minds and affections of those separatists with whom he undertakes to expostulate. Few, perhaps, will be much offended at having the founders of Methodism represented as Enthusiasts, since the warmth and fervency of their zeal must subject them to this appellation: but their followers will be hurt at having the enthusiasm of their leaders traced to pride and ambition as its source, and at having their conduct branded with the imputation of criminal schism. That Wesley and Whitfield were in many instances visionaries, who acted under the influence of a heated and delusive imagination, no sensible person can have a doubt: but it would be uncharitable not to allow that they were stimulated by a high sense of duty, and (if we admit Mr. Nott's explanation of the phrase) it may even be conceded to them that they "*were moved by the Holy Ghost* [*]."

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[*] Certainly the Minister of the Church of England does declare, that, before he presumes to take part in its Ministry, "he trusts he is moved by the "Holy Spirit." Yet who is there that is unacquainted with the sense in which our Church wishes these words to be understood? If in presenting ourselves for ordination we can truly say, that we are not actuated by any carnal motive; if we can say, that

denunciations of schism against those who, on any whatever, secede from their communion, Protesta *themselves*, as the common people say, *a slap in the face.* must Papists smile at hearing such arguments drop fr lips of a clergyman of one of the reformed churches? Church of Rome be allowed to be '*apostolically cons* which Mr. Nott grants, as much guilt must attach clergy in separating from her, as belongs to the English in separating from his Established Church. Mr. Nott aware of this difficulty; and therefore he artfully propo to apply his strictures on the guilt of schism to the cas Reformers: but will the modern Dissenter submit to thi ment? Is it fair to allow one denomination of Christi full benefit of the principles of the Reformation, and t held it from another? If Church Unity and Chur thority must at all events be maintained, then the claim Church of Rome cannot be resisted; and 'the power nouncing absolution of sin,' which this preacher assert been annexed by divine authority to the Christian pries must appertain, not to the members of a church whi renounced the supremacy of the Apostolic See, but

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that we prefer to every other consideration the desire of pr the cause of true Religion; that we wish in our own persons sess a life of such strict holiness, as becometh those who about holy things; that we are content to occupy such situa the Church as are, we may reasonably believe, assigned us by good pleasure, without seeking for them by forbidden means can add likewise, that, as far as we know our own hearts, our is lively, our faith pure, and our hope in the mercies of God f clergy alone of the Catholic Apostolic Church. Against the Papist, however, our established clergy would repair to the impregnable fortress of the Scriptures, and say with Chillingworth, "the Bible, the Bible is the religion of Protestants." On this appeal, his cause is safe: but he cannot exclusively take the whole advantage of it to himself.

In the present age, it is of no avail to endeavour to decide questions of religious controversy by the mere weight of Church Authority. Since the Reformation, men every where claim the privilege of examining for themselves, and of exercising the right of private judgment; and it becomes a matter of important consideration, whether those who exact too much are not as great enemies to Church Unity as those who are inclined to give too little. Liberty of conscience the sectary asserts, and he will examine how far the doctrines of the Church harmonize with his views of divine truth. We are of opinion, therefore, that Mr. Nott, with all his ingenuity, will not in his mode of argumentation make any impression on the body of the Methodists. They will be dis-
leased at the very high ground which he takes; will not
hank him for his expressions of charity towards them on
eir having 'abandoned the *one* Apostolic Church;' and will
em it hard that their scheme, as a schism, should be re-
esented as having an immediate tendency to destroy the
ice of civil society. Unity is certainly a most desirable
ect, for the preservation of which all Christians should be
icitous; and, as the natural operation of religious en-
isiasm is to affix importance to points which comparatively
of very subordinate moment, the considerate part of man-
d will resist the multiplication of distinct communions on
olous pretexts: but still, while knowlege is diffused, and
edom of inquiry is exercised, a variety of opinions will
cessarily prevail; and the only unity which is practicable
any extent is—*the unity of the Spirit in the bond of peace.*

RT. VII. *An Attempt to illustrate the Articles of the Church of England, which the Calvinists improperly consider as Calvinistical.* In Eight Sermons preached before the University of Oxford in the Year 1804, at the Lecture founded by J Bampton, M. A., Canon of Salisbury. By Richard Lawrence, LL. D., of University College. 8vo. pp 460. 8s. Boards. Rivingtons.

WHEN it is considered that our Reformers had just "escaped the Stygian pool" of scholastic theology, we shall be
nclined to offer them no stinted measure of praise for the ex-
rtions which they made to restore a more rational and scriptural

tural system of faith; and if the Christianity, at present generally professed, be not sufficiently christianized, not they but their successors must take the blame. To reduce the speculations of the schoolmen to the standard of the gospel was not an easy task; and to preserve perfect moderation in resisting the pernicious errors of Popery was scarcely to be expected. In compiling articles for a new church, our divines appear to have conducted themselves with great temper and liberality; but it was naturally impossible for them to extricate themselves from the leaven of existing controversy, and to rise absolutely superior to the spirit and complexion of the times. Their theology, though not woven in the same loom with that of the schools, was constructed of similar materials and partook of the same fashion; and therefore, in order to appreciate its merit as well as to understand its real object and tendency, it is requisite for us to look back to the writings of those authors who flourished at the reformation, and to trace the articles of the Church of England to their primitive sources. This investigation, however, is now become dry and uninteresting; it obliges us to peruse writings which are at present very little read even by the Clergy, and to familiarize ourselves with a species of metaphysics once in vogue, but now happily exploded. Dr. Lawrence has had patience and industry to dig in this neglected quarry; and those who are desirous of discovering the precise strata, on which the articles of our church were constructed, will derive information from his researches.

Several of our modern clergy have contended that the articles are calvinistic, and have assumed to themselves the appellation of "true Churchmen" on the ground of their espousing the system of Calvin: but the object of these pages is to prove, by a weight of evidence which can scarcely be resisted, that the creed of Luther and Melancthon was more respected by our reformers, than that which prevailed at Geneva; and that the repulsive tenets of Calvin and his disciples were cautiously excluded from our national formula. Dr. L. does not advert to the recent controversy on the true doctrine of the articles, nor to Dr. Kipling's excellent pamphlet (noticed by us M. R. Vol. 40. N. S. p. 438) which supports the same hypothesis that is maintained in these sermons. Dr. K. indeed took not so wide a range as the present preacher; contenting himself with shewing, by a comparison of the articles and liturgy with the writings of Calvin, that the former are not in accordance with the latter. A more laboured and more complete demonstration is here exhibited; Dr. Lawrence examines the writings of all the principal reformers on the continent; and by copious extracts from their works, (given in the form of notes at the end of

volume) he shews to whom the compilers were *not*
whom they *were* indebted. The correspondence observ-
etween the language of the articles, and that which occurs
e compositions of Luther, Melancthon, and Bucer, and
ularly that which is employed in the Augsburgh and Wir-
rg Confessions, is adduced at length, to demonstrate their
ran origin.

e lecturer undertakes, 1st, to shew that the general prin-
of the reformation, from its commencement to the pe-
f the composition of the articles, were of a Lutheran tend-
; 2dly, that the same tendency is manifest in the articles
elves, and is deducible from the history of their compi-
; 3dly, he adverts to the doctrine of original sin, as main-
l by the Scholastics, the Lutherans, and our own Reform-
4thly, the tenet of the schools respecting merit *de Congruo*,
at of the Lutherans in opposition to it, are discussed; 5thly,
ticles "of Free Will," and "of works before justifica-
are explained in connection with the controversy which
d at the time of their formation; 6thly, the doctrine of
cation, according to the Scholastics, the Lutherans, and
hurch, is explained; 7thly, an outline is given of the Pre-
arian system of the schools, with the subsequent amend-
by Luther and Melancthon; and 8thly, the 17th article
sidered in conformity with the sentiments of the latter,
lucidated by the Baptismal service.

the first lecture, the preacher loudly complains that,
preting the articles according to the modern meaning of
n expressions, and disregarding the characteristical no-
of the times in which they were first established, the So-
and the Calvinist combine in giving them a sense which
were not originally intended to convey, and then accuse
e Clergy) of departing from the creed of our ancestors,
f disbelieving that to which we have all subscribed.' To
how unfounded this charge is with regard to our modern
, Dr. L. volunteers his services; and it must be confessed
e has spared no pains in order to render his defence com-
A large mass of evidence is produced in the notes,
ove the assertion in the text that our national faith was
lled after the Lutheran; and that, in the first compila-
f the articles, many prominent passages were taken from
ugsburgh, and in the second from the Wirtemberg Con-
n [*].

It

The first of our Articles was taken almost verbatim from the
the Augsbourgh Confession.

'1st Ar-

It is maintained that, in the article of "original sin;" no allusion to imputation in the Calvinistic sense is to be discovered; and the preacher reminds us that no actual condemnation is passed on the corruption of nature, but that it is merely stated to be *deserving* of it. If this distinction be rather too nice for all palates, the following account of the object of the compilers is rational, though it will not please Mr. Wilberforce and some others:

'Avoiding one extreme, they meant not to rush into another: and whatever use ignorant or enthusiastical men may have since made of any strong expressions which they adopted, offensive only when misapplied, they never intended so to degrade our nature, as if it were lost to every sense of moral excellence: they were alone desirous of reducing its proud pretensions to the unadulterated standard of holy Scripture, to demonstrate that the Christian redemption is not use-

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'1st Article.

"Unus est vivus et verus Deus, æternus, incorporeus, impartibilis, impassibilis, immensæ potentiæ, sapientiæ, et bonitatis, creator et conservator omnium, tum visibilium, tum invisibilium. Et in unitate hujus divinæ naturæ tres sunt personæ, ejusdem essentiæ, potentiæ, ac æternitatis, Pater, Filius, et Spiritus Sanctus."

'Augsburgh Confession.

"Videlicet, quod sit una essentia divina, quæ et appellatur et est Deus, æternus, incorporeus, impartibilis, immensa potentia, sapientia, et bonitate, creator et conservator omnium rerum, visibilium et invisibilium. Et tamen tres sunt personæ, ejusdem essentiæ et potentiæ, et coæternæ, Pater, Filius, et Spiritus Sanctus."—

'The Articles, either partly, or wholly, copied from the Wirtemberg Confession, are the 2d, 5th, 6th, 10th, 11th, 12th, and 20th; which, indeed, contain the principal additions and elucidations upon doctrinal points, (that of the Eucharist alone excepted,) adopted at that period.'—

In addition to these proofs of the intercourse of our Reformers with the Lutherans, a note is subjoined to prove their little acquaintance with Calvin:

'So little known was the fame of Calvin in England about this period, that one of his works was translated and published in 1549, under the following title; "Of the Life and Conversation of a Christian Man; a right godly treatise, written in the Latin tongue, by Master John Calvin, *a man of right excellent learning, and of no less conversation.*" Ames's Topographical Antiquities, p. 620. ed. W. H. Does not this encomium prove, that his name, in consequence, if not of its obscurity, at least of its little celebrity, stood in need of some commendation? How differently is Luther's announced in the following work, of rather an earlier period (viz. about the year 1547)! "The Disclosing of the Canon of the Popish Mass. With a Sermon annexed of *the famous Clerk of worthy memory*, Dr. Martin Luther." See Strype's Eccles. Mem. vol. ii. p. 26.'

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nor grace promised us in vain. Neither were their efforts una-ing. In proportion as the sacred Writings, to which they con-ntly referred, became more read and better understood, the credit of theological dictators of preceding ages was gradually diminished, til at length the fairy visions and phantastical speculations, with ich a credulous world had been long amused, vanished before the ndour of Gospel day. So puerile indeed were some of these ec-ntric writers in their glosses upon the fall of man, and the transmis-on of its effects, that the Church of Rome herself began to grow hamed of such folly; and to slight in one respect at least the au-ority of those, who had been her instructors for centuries.'

The popular doctrine of original sin, contemplated through r. L.'s gloss, is certainly less objectionable than with the com-ent of modern Calvinists: but, if 'the splendor of gospel day' ere thrown on it, no gloss would reconcile us to its present ording.

The language of the articles "of Free Will" and "of Works fore Justification" is said to refer to the efficacy which the urch of Rome attributed to mere external performances, d to be opposed to the doctrine which this church held re-ecting congruous merit, and the value of the mere *opus ope-tum.*

'Yet (continues the preacher) obvious as this appears to be, it has unfrequently been overlooked or disregarded; and the word tification been contemplated only in the sense, in which it is ap-d by the followers of Calvin. But our Reformers entertained no h idea of its application. They believed it not to be a blessing, ch we may in vain sigh to behold above our reach, granted to ain individuals alone, and always granted irrespectively, by a ne decree, fixed and immutable; but one, which we all possess fancy, and of which nothing but our own folly can afterwards ive us. They never asserted the total inability of a Christian to rm a good action, or even think a good thought, until the arrival me destined moment, when it shall please God, without his own avours, to illuminate his understanding, and renovate his affec-s. The gift of grace, not to be purchased by human merit, but ys bestowed gratuitously, they confined not to a selected few, the estinated favourites of Heaven, but extended to all, who neither wilful perversity oppose its reception, nor, when received, by ac-crime discard it. On the present occasion, indeed they simply rded Works before Justification as those, which were more usu-denominated works of Congruity, adopting perhaps the former in preference, because it was precisely that, which had been ntly used in the same sense by the Council of Trent.'

he apology for the concluding words of the 13th article ore ingenious than satisfactory: viz. 'they (the compilers) er intended by the appellation "sinful" to erase a moral on from the catalogue of virtues, or to consider it as neither commendable nor good; but merely to oppose its exaltation above its appropriate character, and its investiture with the high office of conciliation between man and his offended Creator."

That the article " of Predestination and Election" is not strictly Calvinistic, from the circumstance of its silence on reprobation, has been often observed. Dr. L. does not merely wrest it from the grasp of Calvin, but gives it to the German reformer:

> 'By explaining this Article in conformity with our baptismal service, we instantly perceive upon what principles divine election is supposed to proceed, and what is that general promise and will of God, of which it speaks, as expressly declared in the word of God; we perceive, that grace, according to the Lutheran doctrine, is directly taught to be both Universal and Defectible, circumstances which necessarily preclude every idea of an arbitrary selection of individuals. Our benevolent Creator, we are told, possesses no private partiality for certain preordained objects of his bounty, but is equally disposed to all, embraces all indiscriminately with the arms of his mercy, and receives all, when dedicated to him by baptism, into the number of his elect; and when, at any subsequent period of our existence, he withdraws from us the light of his heavenly countenance, the cause of that deplorable change is not imputable to him, but to us, who prove defective on our parts, forfeiting in maturer years our title to eternal happiness, and excluding ourselves from salvation.'

Dr. Lawrence offers a very high panegyric on the style of the Liturgy, as ' full without verbosity, fervid without enthusiasm, refined without the appearance of refinement, and solemn without the affectation of solemnity:' but, though we do not dispute its general excellence as a composition for public use, we must observe that, in the note illustrative of his remark, " tied and bound" as a translation of *constringit* is an unfortunate exemplification of fullness without verbosity; and if the psalter be considered as a part of the liturgy, we cannot apply to it the epithet of refined. How preferable in every respect is the Bible version of the psalms!—Dr. L. has taken care not to adopt the liturgy as a model of his own style.

ART. VIII. *A Treatise on the Coins of the Realm;* in a Letter to the King. By Charles, Earl of Liverpool. 4to. pp. 266. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE subject of Coin is one of those on which the labours of speculative men have of late years been employed with great success, and with equal benefit to society. Problems which puzzled our more simple ancestors have in our own times received satisfactory solution; and mischiefs which they aggravated by their ignorance, in their very attempts to correct them, have effectually been prevented. These remarks were in a striking manner exemplified in the discussions occasioned by the late unfavourable state of the exchange in Ireland, and in the expedients which in consequence of them were adopted. In the volume before us, analogous principles of theoretical knowlege are applied to the consideration of a corresponding evil, which has been long a subject of complaint; we allude to the state of the silver coinage; the causes of which are here minutely investigated and learnedly stated, and an obvious course for their removal is clearly indicated. Of the science which directly refers to this nice subject, we perceive no deficiency in the noble author; though, in treating of a few matters collateral to it, we find his views to be less enlarged than we should have conceived them to be.—It will most probably surprize the greater number of our readers, to learn that from 1717 to 1760, the quantity of silver brought to the mint to be coined has been considerably under 600,000 l.

If theorists will bear in mind the object of the work, they will perceive that the author was not required to go more deeply into principles than he has done in the passages which we subjoin:

'The Money or Coin of a country is the standard measure, by which the value of all things bought and sold, is regulated and ascertained;—and it is itself, at the same time, the value, or equivalent, for which goods are exchanged, and in which contracts are generally made payable.—In this last respect, Money, as a measure, differs from all others; and to the combination of the two qualities before defined, which constitute the essence of Money, the principal difficulties that attend it, in speculation and practice, both as a measure and an equivalent, are to be ascribed. These two qualities can never be brought perfectly to unite and agree; for if Money were a measure alone, and made like all other measures of a material of little or no value, it would not answer the purpose of an equivalent. And if it is made, in order to answer the purpose of an equivalent, of a material of value, subject to frequent variations, according to the price at which such material sells at the market, it fails on that account in the quality of a standard or measure, and will not continue to be perfectly uniform and at all times the same.

'In all civilized nations, Money has been made either of Gold, or Silver, or Copper, frequently of all three, and sometimes of a metal composed of Silver and Copper, in certain proportions, commonly called Billon. It has been found by long experience, and by the concurrent opinion of civilized nations in all ages, that these metals, and particularly Gold and Silver, are the fittest materials of which Money can be made. Gold and Silver are perfectly homogeneous in themselves, for no physical difference can be found in any

pound

pound of pure Gold, or of pure Silver, whether the production of Europe, Asia, Africa, or America. They are divisible with the greatest accuracy into exact proportions or parts. From their value they are not too bulky for the common purposes of exchange; and in all these respects they serve better than any other material, as an equivalent. And lastly they are less consumable or subject to decay, than most other commodities.

'Certain portions of these metals, with an impression struck upon them, by order of the Sovereign, as a guarantee of their purity and weight, serve as Coin.'

Coins, it is here observed, whether considered as a measure or an equivalent, are subject to four imperfections; the first of which is the variation in its value with respect to itself in successive periods, occasioned by the greater or less quantity that may happen to be at different times in circulation. Two other causes of this variation are thus stated:

'If Coins are made of two of these metals, a second imperfection is then introduced; for any two of these metals, in successive periods, vary in value with respect to each other. The value of fine Gold, compared with that of fine Silver, was rated, in the 43d of Elizabeth, at less than 11 to 1, at the English Mint. But when Guineas were first coined in 1663, the value of fine Gold, compared with that of fine Silver, was rated in the English Mint at $14\frac{485}{1000}$ to 1. Guineas were then coined as 20 Shilling Pieces, and declared by the Mint indenture to be current as such. They have since been made current by Proclamation as 21 Shilling Pieces. The relative value therefore of fine Gold to fine Silver, in the Coins of this kingdom, is now as $15\frac{2096}{10000}$ to 1. And in the Mints of several foreign countries, the value of Gold, compared with that of Silver, is rated still higher. These metals will also occasionally vary in their value, even at the same time, in different countries; and Exchange Brokers, and many Bankers, are induced, on this account, to carry on a traffic in these metals, and in the Coins made of them, to their own profit and to the loss of others.

'If the Sovereign takes upon himself to determine the rate or value, at which Coins made of different metals shall at the same time pass in currency, a third imperfection is introduced into the system; for it is not possible that he should be able to pursue, with sufficient accuracy, the various fluctuations and changes, that may in a short time happen, in the relative values of these different metals. Their prices at the market will therefore frequently differ from the rate, at which he has valued them in his Coins; and when Coins made of different metals are equally legal tender, there will of course be two measures of property, differing occasionally from each other. A profit will always in such case be made by those who traffic in Coins, by exchanging that Coin which has the least intrinsic value, for that, which has the greatest. The debtor will find it his interest to make his payments in the Coin made of that metal, which is overvalued at the Mint; and such Coins, as are made of the metal undervalued at the Mint will always be melted down and exported.'

The fourth Cause arises from the wear to which coins in
culation are liable.—It is the object of this work to propose
ch principles of coinage, as will tend to remedy the second
d third of these imperfections.

The two points, to which the learning and reasoning dis-
ayed by the Earl of Liverpool are directed, are the expe-
iency of fixing on one metal as the standard or measure of
alue, and the superior claims of gold for this preference.
his doctrine will appear from the passages which ensue:

‘ The Money or Coin, which is to be the principal measure of pro-
erty, ought to be made of one metal only. Such is the opinion of
ir William Petty, Mr. Locke, Mr. Harris, and of all the eminent
riters on Coin. Sir William Petty says, that *one* of the metals is
e only fit matter for Money. Mr. Locke calls this sort of Money
e Money of Account, or the Measure of Commerce or Contracts;
d he adds, “ that two metals, such as Gold and Silver, cannot be
e measure of commerce both together in any country.” Mr. Har-
, in his Essay on Money and Coins, delivers it as his opinion, that
ly one metal can be the Money, or standard measure of property
commerce in any country; and he calls this sort of Money *the
ndard of Money*. These three authors assign their reasons in sup-
t of a principle in which they all concur; their reasons, are, in
stance, the same; and are so convincing, that the truth of this
iciple can no longer be controverted. I shall be obliged to have
ourse to the reasons they have offered in support of their opinion,
future part of this Letter; so that it is not necessary to detain
r Majesty by stating them at present. The truth of this prin-
e in fact results from the nature and uses of Money, as before
ribed.—The before mentioned writers have assigned different
es to this superior sort of Money, or Coins, by which the Coins
de of other metals are to be regulated, and to which they are to
subservient. The Coins, which are to be the principal measure of
perty, must of course be legal tender without limitation. I shall
l this superior sort of Money, or Coins, the principal Measure of
operty, or Standard Coin: and having clearly defined my idea, I
nceive I have a right to make use of these terms in the sense which
have given to them.

‘ Certain, however, as the principle is, that the Money or Coins of
y country, which are to be the principal measure of property, can
made of one metal only; the convenience of traffic necessarily
quires, that in rich and commercial countries, there should be
oins made of several metals, adapted to the several sorts of pur-
ases or exchanges, for which they are intended. Coins made of
old alone, or of Silver alone, in such countries, will not answer all
e purposes of traffic. Coins of Gold are not well adapted for the
ail trade, in which sort of traffic the greatest number of the sub-
ts of every country are principally concerned; and Coins of Silver
e too bulky for larger payments, and are, in that respect, incon-
nient.—It is necessary, therefore, that in commercial countries there
ould be Coins made of different metals. And if the Coins, which

are the principal measure of property and instrument of commerce can only be made of one of these metals; the inferior Coins, made of other metals, must be legal tender only in a limited degree, as the Sovereign shall direct; and so far only they are the measure of property: and if they are accepted in payment for a larger sum, with the consent of the receiver, (as may sometimes be the case,) they may then be said to be the representatives of the Coins which are the principal measure of property, and their value must be made to correspond with it, as accurately as the nature of the subject will admit. It is by adopting this rule, or principle, that the second and third of the imperfections before stated will be avoided, or at least the ill effects resulting from them will be diminished as much as possible.'

The Earl shews, with great precision and neatness, that the convenience of society has already in a degree effected the change which he is solicitous to have constitutionally established; we refer to the legal character which he would have stamped on gold. He maintains that, in fact, gold is become the standard coin; that to which all other coins and articles of commerce are referred and compared, and by which they have their value determined. Indeed, the law has but a very short step to take in order completely to coincide with the plan proposed, as will appear from the following statement of it:

'From the time when Gold Coins were first made in the Mints of this kingdom, these Gold Coins have been equally with the Silver Coins legal tender, and consequently the measure of property, according to the rate or value which the Sovereign thought fit to set upon them. I do not think it necessary here to repeat what I have stated already, that Gold Coins, during a subsequent period, took a value superior to that at which they were rated in the Mint indenture. This was by general consent, and consequently at the option of the person who received them in payment, and not by the authority of Government; so that this superior value was not in truth the legal value. Secondly, that the Silver Coins of this realm, considered as Coins, are now legal tender only in sums not exceeding 25l. Thirdly, that the Copper Halfpence and Farthings, made at the royal Mint, are legal tender only in sums that do not amount to Sixpence. That the Copper Twopences and Pence lately authorized to be made by Your Majesty by a private Artist, are legal tender only in sums not exceeding twelve pence. And that the Copper Halfpence and Farthings, in like manner authorized to be made by Your Majesty, are legal tender in sums not exceeding Sixpence.'

It is here clearly shewn that, down to a period later than the Revolution, silver was the standard coin of the country: but that a change in this respect began to take place from the year 1717, when, on the report of Sir Isaac Newton, the currency of gold underwent the regulation by which it has ever ince been governed.

It is remarked that, at the time of the Revolution, in consequence of the silver coins being greatly deficient,

‘ Every commodity rose in its value in proportion to this deficiency; they all took their value in reference to the Silver Coins: but none of these evils have happened for many years past, in consequence of the existing defect of our Silver Coins. There is no reason to suppose that any commodity has on this account risen in its price or value. The cause that these evils do not now exist results from a change in the practice and opinion of the people, with reference to the principal measure of property. The Silver Coins are no longer the principal measure of property: all commodities now take their price or value in reference to the Gold Coins, that is, in reference to the quantity of Gold Coins, for which they could be exchanged; in like manner as they took their value in a former period, in reference to the Silver Coins. On this account the present deficiency of the Silver Coins, great as it is, is not taken into consideration, in paying the price of any commodity, to the extent in which they are legal tender. It is clear therefore, that the Gold Coins are now become, in the practice and opinion of the people, the principal measure of property.

‘ A like conclusion may be drawn from the present state of our Gold Coins, and from the value at which they now pass in currency. The Mint indentures of Charles II. James II. William III. and Queen Anne, and even of a part of the reign of George I to the year 1717, had determined, that the Guinea should pass at the rate or value of 20s., and the other Gold Coins in proportion; yet they did not pass at that, which was then their legal rate or value, but at a much higher rate or value: and in a part of the reign of King William the Guinea was current at even so high a value as 30s. This increased rate or value was not owing singly to a mistaken estimation at the Mint of the relative value of Gold to Silver, but the Gold Coins rose or fell, as the Silver Coins were less or more perfect. No such increase or variation in the value of the Gold Coin has taken place since the year 1717, when the rate or value of the Guinea was determined by proclamation, and the Mint indenture, to be 21s., and the other Gold Coins in proportion; though the Silver Coins now current have long been, and are still at least as deficient as they were at the beginning of the reign of King William. The Guinea and the other Gold Coins have notwithstanding constantly passed, since 1717, at the rate or value given them by the Mint indentures.

‘ The two foregoing arguments clearly prove the opinion of the people of Great Britain on this subject, in their interior commerce and domestic concerns. I will in the next place shew, what has been the opinion of foreign nations concerning it. At the time of the general Recoinage of the Silver Coins, in the reign of King William, the exchanges with all foreign countries rose or fell, according to the defect or perfection of our Silver Coins. It has already been stated, that at this period *the exchanges to the Low Countries were so very low,* *that the public lost about 4s. in the Pound on all monies remitted there; that the exchange to Hamburgh and to the East Countries was still lower, and to all places in the Mediterranean it was even more to our disadvantage.* The most favourable, therefore, of our exchanges was, during this period, 20 per cent. against this kingdom. All these facts are confirmed by the most eminent writers on exchanges. The reason that the exchanges were then so low is also evident. Foreigners at that time considered the Silver Coins of this realm, then very defective, as the principal measure of property, and consequently of foreign commerce, and they rated their exchanges accordingly. The same evil however has never existed since the year 1717, though our Silver Coins have, during all this interval, been very defective. But, on the other hand, our exchanges with foreign countries were very much influenced to our disadvantage, when our Gold Coins were defective; that is, previous to the reformation of our Gold Coins, in the year 1774; and this circumstance was one of the principal causes, which then induced the Government to reform the Gold Coins, by recoining them, at a great charge to the public. The conclusion, naturally resulting from these premises, is, that foreigners have for a considerable period, no longer considered our Silver Coins as the principal measure of property, and consequently of foreign commerce; but they consider our Gold Coin as such, and thereby estimate their exchanges.'[a]

Mr. Locke had said that gold was not the money of the world, nor fit to be so. The more correct canon is laid down by Lord Liverpool, that 'coins should be made of metals more or less valuable in proportion to the wealth and commerce of the country, in which they are to be the measure of property.'[a] In illustration of this important idea, it is here added;

'In very poor countries, Coins have been, and still are principally made of Copper; and sometimes even of less valuable materials.

'In countries advanced to a certain degree of commerce and opulence, Silver is the metal of which Coins are principally made.

'In very rich countries, and especially in those where great and extensive commerce is carried on, Gold is the most proper metal, of which this principal measure of property, and this instrument of commerce, should be made: in such countries Gold will in practice become the principal measure of property, and the instrument of commerce, with the general consent of the people, not only without the support of law, but in spite of almost any law that may be enacted to the contrary; for the principal purchases and exchanges cannot there be made, with any convenience, in Coins of a less valuable metal. In this Your Majesty's kingdom, so great is its wealth, and so various and extensive is its commerce, that it is become inconvenient to carry on many of the principal branches of trade, or to make great payments, even in Coins of Gold, the most precious of metals: on this account a very extensive Paper currency has been called to its aid: but this Paper can never be considered as Coin, for it has no value in itself; it only obtains its value with reference to

the

ie Coins which it represents. Certain descriptions of this Paper urrency have, however, from a thirst of gain, been carried by many, nd from a love of speculation defended by others, to an extravaant, and, I think, to a dangerous, extent. Paper currency should nly be employed, where payment in Coins becomes inconvenient.

'In illustration of the truth of what I have advanced, that Gold is now the proper metal, of which the principal measure of property and instrument of commerce should be made, it may be observed, that the value of Silver in this kingdom, at the accession of William I. compared with the price of other articles, was nearly as great as that of Gold is at present: the Silver Coins were then, and for two hundred and fifty years subsequent to that period, the only Money in currency; and the largest Piece was a Silver Penny, equal in value to something less than 3d. of our present Money. The rents of the rown, as well as of individuals, were at that time usually paid in ind: and it is natural to conclude, that there must then have been nt a small quantity of these Silver Coins in circulation. Every ticle of commerce is also supposed to have increased in price, since e 1st of William I. at least fifteen times, in the opinion of those, hose estimate in this respect has been the lowest; that is, the Pound erling in tale has been reduced to about one-third of what it was the period before mentioned: and the price of every commodity, npared with the Pound Sterling in tale, has at least augmented in intuple proportion: a Pound of Gold, therefore, compared with Present price of commodities, is of about the same value as a und of Silver was in the eleventh century, compared with the ce of commodities at that early period: and, in this view of the ject, the Gold Coin is now as well adapted to serve as the prinal measure of property, or instrument of commerce, as the Silver in was at the accession of the Norman Prince to the throne of this gdom.'

We are aware that this language is not altogether that of re science: but we conceive that what is here advanced is bstantially correct, and must not be neglected in practice.

At the conclusion of his reasonings and statements, the ble Earl thus addresses the royal personage:

'After full consideration of this extensive, abstruse, and intricate bject, I humbly offer to Your Majesty, as the result of my opinion,

'First, That the Coins of this realm, which are to be the princil measure of property and instrument of commerce, should be made one metal only.

'Secondly, That in this kingdom the Gold Coins only have been r many years past, and are now, in the practice and opinion of the ople, the principal measure of property and instrument of comerce The Integer, or Pound Sterling, which, at the accession of illiam I was a Pound weight of Silver, and which, by successive basements made by the Monarchs of this realm, was reduced in the d year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, to the [illegible] parts of a und Troy of standard Silver, is now become, by the course of events, and by the general consent of the people, the $\frac{20}{21}$ parts of a Guinea, or of 5 dwts. 9¼ grs. of standard Gold. At as early a period as the year 1485, that is, the 1st of Henry VII. a Gold Coin, called a Sovereign, then first introduced into circulation, was intended to represent this Integer, or Pound Sterling. In every subsequent reign to that of James I. Gold Coins of the same name, and intended to represent this Integer, were made at the Mint of this kingdom; their weight was generally diminished in proportion as the Gold Coins were, during that period, debased From the accession of James I. all the new Gold Coins introduced into circulation were also intended to represent this Integer, or Pound Sterling; such as the Unite, the Laurel, and the Guinea; for the Guinea was originally rated in the Mint indenture at One Pound Sterling. It has been shewn, that in a country like Great Britain, so distinguished for its affluence, and for the extent of its commercial connections, the Gold Coins are best adapted to be the principal measure of property: in this kingdom, therefore, the Gold Coin is now the principal measure of property and standard Coin, or as it were the sovereign archetype, by which the weight and value of all other Coins should be regulated. It is the measure of almost all contracts and bargains; and by it, as a measure, the price of all commodities bought and sold is adjusted and ascertained. For these reasons the Gold Coins should be made as perfect, and be kept as perfect, as possible.'—

'If the system now recommended should be adopted, and the Gold Coins be made the principal measure of property and standard Coin, all the multiples of this measure of property will be in the Gold Coins; and all its parts, below the value of the smallest Piece of Gold Coin, will be in Coins made of other metals, that is, of Silver and Copper. This system is much more simple, than if the Silver Coins were to be made the principal measure of property; for, in such case, these Silver Coins would be placed, as it were, between the more valuable Coins of Gold, and the less valuable Coins of Copper; and many of its multiples, as well as many of its parts, must be made of a metal different from that, of which this standard Coin is made.

'Thirdly, it is evident, that where the function of the Gold Coins, as a measure of property, ceases, there that of the Silver Coins should begin; and that where the function of the Silver Coins in this respect ceases, there that of Copper should begin: it is clear, therefore, that so far only these Silver and Copper Coins should be made legal tender, and no further, at least not in any great degree, and it follows, that the Coins both of Silver and Copper are subordinate, subservient, and merely representative Coins, and must take their value with reference to the Gold Coins, according to the rate, which the Sovereign sets upon each of them.'

It is not a little singular that this very intelligent and well informed writer, who is alive to all the inconveniences arising from the variations in the relative value of the two principal coins, and who complains of the different proportions of alloy which have been respectively introduced into them,—

he who in so able a manner has stated the effects to which se variations have given rise, and has so satisfactorily ex-ined the causes to which they are owing —should recom-nd a regulation which would increase still farther this va-tion; we allude to that part of his plan by which it is pro-led that the mint should supply the public with gold coins thout charging the expence of workmanship, while it is to :ur that charge for all the inferior coins;—and it is still more traordinary that the Earl should argue for the comparative lue of the coins being fixed by authority. If gold be made : standard money, why should not the silver and copper ins be left to find their value like other commodities? This not a matter of mere speculation, but is attended with very ious consequences, as is most ably shewn in the work be-e us. In the proportion between the metals observed by vernment in its payments and receipts, the subjects would l a sufficiently safe rule.

Having thus submitted his plan to his Majesty, Lord Liver-l is apprehensive that it may be objected to his principles of nage, that they are wholly new. Certainly, no objection be advanced with less foundation: these principles have pretensions to the claim of novelty: but they boast of ier merit, for they are sanctioned by the authority of the st writers on subjects of this nature. That which seems present most of novelty in the work is the proposition of ing gold, *eo nomine*, the standard coin: but the author shews the change, which our circumstances have undergone, has ady in effect established that regulation.

The reasons for not changing the present denominations of coins, and for dropping every idea of introducing a sys-more consonant to first principles, are regarded as most isive by this experienced nobleman.

This volume furnishes many passages that would be more eable to the generality of readers, than those which we are ut to quote: but, as the matter contained in them is most ortant, and as it perhaps can never be pressed on public ntion with greater prospect of success than at this moment, shall make no apology for allowing it rather a dispropor-ate space in our journal.

> I have already observed, that the art of assaying, as practised by Alchorne, and I believe by his successors, at Your Majesty's t, is in a state of perfection; probably more so than in most of the ign Mints; that the nature of the alloy put into the Coins is uch, , all circumstances considered, it ought not to be changed; and : the several denominations of Coins, of whatever metal they are le, are issued from Your Majesty's Mint of due weight; even

Mill and Screw; but this instrument was never introduced into c
stant practice at the English Mint, till the year 1662, when lett
and grainings were first placed on the edges of the Coins Fr
that time to the present this mode of making Coins has continued
be practised in Your Majesty's Mint; but the new machinery n
employed in the manufactory of every sort of metal, in which t
mechanics of this country far surpass those of any other, has not
general been admitted into Your Majesty's Mint. It is an ackno
ledged principle, that machines, which act with a given force, c
work with more truth and accuracy than the arm of man, the for
of which necessarily varies occasionally, from several causes; anoth
practice has been invented; that of striking Coins in a steel coll
so as to make them perfectly round, and all precisely of the same d
meter; an improvement, which certainly contributes at least to t
beauty of the Coin; new modes of putting what is called the grain
on the edges of Coins have also been invented; which at the same ti
that they protect the Coins from being filed, equally with the pres
mode, do not occasion those rough points or edges, which expose th
to wear by abrasion or friction. For these, and many other valua
inventions, the public are indebted to the ingenuity of Mr. Boult
of Soho, near Birmingham. It is singular, that though the manuf
turers of England have greatly profited by these inventions,
Officers of Your Majesty's Mint have never, or at least not suf
ently, availed themselves of them: the Mints of foreign countries
in search of them; and their governments in more than one insta
have employed Mr. Boulton, in erecting Mints on his new pri
ples; and Parliament has authorised the same. One Government
need not name it) has, as I have learned from good authority,
persons at different times, under pretence of treating with Mr. B
ton, in the course of his business, to obtain by artifice the knowle
of his inventions, for the benefit of the countries under its sway.

'But it is not only in the fashion and beauty of the Coins t by be made with much more expedition, and with less charge to public. By an account which I have seen, Mr. Boulton can coin ast ten times as many pieces, in a given time, as can be coined e Mint by the method now practised; and though, as I have dy observed, the security of the precious metals, while in the ody of the Officers of the Mint, is at present very great, it will ainly be increased when fewer persons are employed in the opera- l. If a new Silver Coinage should be undertaken, expedition* ertainly of great importance; and I could wish that the whole ht be performed at one Mint in the Tower, rather than at several ts in different parts of the kingdom, as practised in the reign of g William, and at other preceding periods: it is certainly more to find artists of proper talents and abilities, sufficient in num- to occupy the respective departments in one Mint, than in r.

The charges of Your Majesty's Mint ought certainly to be re- d: the accounts I have already stated, though little else than l has for many years been coined, sufficiently enforce the pro- y of some reduction. This charge may easily be diminished, if ew machinery is employed: in truth, a new Mint indenture, in h all these charges are specified and ascertained, will be abso- y necessary. I have no doubt, that on this occasion Your sty will treat the present Officers of Your Mint with the justice liberality to which they are entitled. Considerable fortunes occasionally been made by the Masters of Your Majesty's in former times: one great man, who was an honour not only is country, but to human nature; for the powers of the human rstanding were never exerted by any one with so much energy perspicuity, or carried t[illegible]uch an amazing extent, on subjects almost surpass human comprehension—this great man being for y years at the head of the Mint, derived an ample fortune from source, to which he was fully entitled. By representations and rts he frequently apprised the Officers of Your Majesty's Trea- of defects, which he observed in the Coins, and of frauds com- ed by introducing foreign Coins in[illegible] circulation at improper va- ons. I say nothing either of any of his predecessors, or of those have succeeded him: it is not indeed necessary; for Your Ma- , by a wise regulation established in 1799, has prevented any re excess in the profits arising from the office of Master of Your , by converting these profits into a fixed salary, not more than

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* By an account I have seen, it will be easy to coin 60,000,000 hillings, or 3,000,000 l. Sterling in a year, with the aid of the oved machinery, or even double, if the nature of the business ld require it. According to the estimate I have made, it will be proper to begin to replace the present defective Silver Coins ew and perfect Silver Coins, unless a quantity, equal in value to 0,000l. Sterling, can be at once issued, for the use of Great ain, and 1,000,000l. for Ireland. For when Coins, particularly as are beautiful, are first sent into circulation, the people are much disposed to hoard them.'

an

> [illegible] of this office, if [illegible] Officers of Your [illegible] consideration for the Commis[illegible] as well as Parliament, [illegible] afford them sufficient in[illegible] papers and accounts, [illegible] ready to furnish, if it shall be [illegible] paying these inferior Officers [illegible] of that description, in all [illegible] extravagant profits; at other [illegible] derive from their business [illegible] nature of the business [illegible] command it, as in [illegible] introduce habits of [illegible] discontent or dis[illegible] be a sort of College [illegible] department; and in the [illegible] respective branches [illegible].'

The inquiry here so satisfactorily pursued might doubtless have been confined within very narrow limits: but the noble author has chosen to connect with it a large portion of collateral matter, which serves however not merely to adorn but very materially to elucidate the subject; and we are persuaded that neither the august personage, to whom the volume is addressed, nor any reader who is capable of comprehending disquisitions of this nature, will regret the circumstance.

In regard to coins, the province of the royal prerogative is very elaborately considered; and a claim in its behalf is maintained, which, however, the author admits it would be most pernicious to call into exercise. It would, we think, have been more discreet not to have insisted on it; at least we are sure that none will dispute that much superfluous pains have been taken to establish it. The claim is that of a right in the crown to raise or lower the denomination of coin, and to mix with it more or less alloy. We deny that any prerogative can be inherent in the crown of these realms, which is inconsistent with the first dictates of natural justice, the foundation of our own and of all municipal laws. Of the inconveniences arising from the exercise of such a right, few persons can be more fully aware than Lord Liverpool himself; who has given a summary of them (at p. 106) which convincingly shews the impropriety of the measure. We would ask the noble author whether a right, so unjust and impolitic, can add any dignity or splendour to the crown of these realms,—all the prerogatives of which are intended for the benefit of the subject?

This volume is enriched by very neat and succinct accounts of the changes which our coins and the denominations of them have undergone, and of the attempts to debase them which disgrace one short period of our history. The contrast between this country and neighbouring states is in this respect so flattering, that, if our limits permitted us to make farther extracts from this volume, we should gladly quote the historical statement of this point which occurs at page 110 *et seq.*: but for this satisfaction we must refer the reader to the work.

We trust to the great merit of this very instructive performance, and the importance of its contents, as a sufficient apology for the large extracts which we have made from it. We intended to have offered various observations on it*: but we judged it to be most for the interest of our readers to forbear in this respect, in order to allow more room for the text which we have taken the liberty of transferring so largely into our pages.

Many of those who have been distinguished by the favour of kings, and even of the best of kings, have often possessed little merit to sanction the envied preference: but such a remark cannot be applied to this highly raised and favoured subject of George the Third. He lays claim to very respectable talents, and to very considerable services. To us, indeed, his abilities have long been known: in fact, longer than to the public, or to the sovereign.—The language of the present production is throughout (as might be expected) distinguished by its courtly tone, but still it is constitutional, and honorable as well to the monarch as to the author.—The accounts of the bodily suffering and infirmity, under which the work was composed, are very affecting; and they shew in a striking light the strength and vigour of that mind which, with such disadvantages, was capable of so considerable an effort.

Art. IX. *An Historical Account of the Black Empire of Hayti:* comprehending a View of the principal Transactions in the Revolution of St. Domingo; with its ancient and modern State. By Marcus Rainsford, Esq., late Captain, third West-India Regiment, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 467. (with fourteen Plates.) 2l. 2s. Boards. Cundee.

How fertile of political events is the present period! Even within the narrow compass of a few years, what surprizing revolutions have convulsed the states and kingdoms of the world! Some empires have suddenly sunken as if undermined by the operations of a volcano; and others have as unexpectedly arisen, like certain islands in the sea thrown up by subterraneous fires. History was never furnished with more various and instructive materials; and though in most of these instances the influence of party or of prejudice will operate in giving particular colourings to details written at the moment, yet, by a comparison of various narratives, the future annalist will be enabled to trace to their true sources the most astonishing of these events. The tremendous subversion of the French Monarchy scarcely offers a more striking spectacle to the politician and philosopher, than the Haytian revolution, which exhibits 'a horde of Negroes emancipating themselves from the vilest slavery, and at once *filling the relations* of society, enacting laws, and commanding armies.' The civilized and savage states seem to have reversed their respective characters; and while an extensive polished nation becomes involved in anarchy and barbarity, a colony of despised African slaves asserts its liberty, and assumes the forms of a regular government.

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* The noble author supposes the circulating coin of the united kingdom to amount to 30 millions sterling: but he does not state the data on which he grounds this most extravagant supposition.

This latter circumstance is contemplated by the present writer with peculiar satisfaction; and his historical account of the rise and establishment of the Black Empire of Hayti is calculated to excite a partiality to the cause of the Negroes, as well as a detestation of the principles and conduct of the French. Allowing, however, that the Blacks of St. Domingo are completely vindicated in their declaration of independence, it must also be admitted that this measure was a fatal stroke to the *ci-devant* ruling state; and that it was very natural for Bonaparte, when he came into power, to wish to restore to France this most valuable of her sugar colonies. The revolution of St. Domingo was not only the assertion of liberty on the part of the Blacks, but it was also the robbery, not to say murder, of the Whites; and the Government of the Mother Country was justified in espousing the cause of the exiled planters, considering their interest as inseparable from her own. Nevertheless, that the measures planned by the Chief Consul to regain St. Domingo were impolitic as well as atrocious cannot admit of a doubt; and if the treachery and savage cruelty of the French towards the Negroes were such as are here detailed, they merit the loss of this island for ever. Mr. Rainsford justly regards the expedition under General Le Clerc as an eternal blot on the fame of Bonaparte; since the plan was designed, by a combination of force and fraud, to effect the complete subjugation of the Negroes, to whom the

Government had extended Liberty; and his conduct to the estimable Black General, Toussaint, was so unfeeling and atrocious that no words can sufficiently reprobate it. If, instead of plotting against a Chief whose power was as legitimate as his own, whose mind perhaps was equally comprehensive, and whose heart appears to have been incomparably superior, he had written to him with sincerity and friendship,—if, instead of sending a military force, he had represented to Toussaint the mutual policy of restoring the relations which subsisted between France and this colony, and had confided in the abilities of the Negroe Chief for the accomplishment of his plan,—St. Domingo might have still belonged to France: but Bonaparte disdained to acknowlege a rival, and preferred the loss of a valuable possession to its acquisition by the aid of a Black compeer. He does not seem to have calculated the force of the Negroes in arms, nor to have reflected on the nature of the country, and on the fatal effects of the climate on Europeans. At one time, General Le Clerc was apparently within reach of his object: but his insincerity, and his base violation of faith in the seizure of Toussaint, plunged every thing into confusion, and taught the Negroes that no truce or treaty could give them security. From this moment, their line of conduct was obvious; self-defence required them to unite in expelling the French, and in declaring themselves independent. The renewal of war in Europe, and our unrivalled empire of the sea, have prevented the French Ruler from sending fresh armies to St. Domingo: but he has not renounced his right to this island; and it is not improbable that, on the return of peace, the forces of Hayti will again be doomed to combat for their liberty and their lives.

The present author, however, regards this empire as established; and, according to his representation of the nature of the country and the character of the people, it promises to be happy and flourishing. He tells us that 'no correct or comprehensive account has been given in our language of this interesting country; and that even those who have enlightened the public mind on other great occasions, have forborne on this wonderful revolution.' In part to supply this omission, he published *a Narrative of Transactions*, &c. in 1802; (for which see M.R. Vol. xxxvii. N.S. p. 333.) and to complete his view of the subject, he offers to us this volume; which, with the substance of his former pamphlet, unites much historical matter:

> 'In it (says Mr. R.) will be found a succinct, and he trusts candid, view of the early history of the Spanish colony, in which the *impolicy* of cruelty, and the *errors* of injustice, are exposed, in pre-

ference to any national prejudice, or habit. The same ideas are continued, regarding the French establishment, and a reference to human nature is preferred, when considering the character of those, whose actions of terrific splendour could be tried by no other test. In regard to the height of the French colonial prosperity, he has not dilated the account by so minute a view of their domestic life as by some might be wished; but, in what is necessary to give a correct idea of manners and conduct, it is hoped no deficiency will appear. In any case where the question of slavery interferes, considering the subject on a broad basis, without regard to party, he has shewn its general *inexpediency*, rather than scrutinized its measures. And in tracing the revolutionary spirit to its source, he has endeavoured to point out moral delinquency without any other expression of rigidity than that which arose from the subject itself. In cotemporary history, that hazardous, and perhaps invidious enterprize, he has rather adopted those facts, wherever such could be found, which have already received the common consent, than obtruded his own, in their place; and where the latter are of necessity introduced, they have been scrupulously examined and confirmed. His own sojourn at Cape François and Fort Dauphin is the unaffected tale of a way-worn soldier, experienced in the cross roads of life, equally happy in the hospitality of an Indian cottage, or that of a magnificent empire—yet not regardless of each exclusive excellence, nor appropriating that of the one to the other, or denying either. With regard to the transactions of the Black Republic (the appellation first given to the black government by the author), great care has been used to obtain [illegible] of conflicting accounts; and, [illegible] and views, much attention [illegible] of their public papers, [illegible]

' [illegible] remarked, ' conveys [illegible] accompanied with gra- [illegible] representing [illegible] French in exter- [illegible] practice of hunting [illegible] engraving of the [illegible] the French, for the [illegible] hands— [illegible] of a [illegible] colonies [illegible] to [illegible] reve- [illegible] inde- [illegible]

Black Empire, and the probable effects of the colonial revolution.

A most captivating delineation of the country is given in the first chapter, which tends to increase our concern at its subsequent devastations:

> 'No description that we have yet seen is adequate to the appearance, even at the present day, of a country, which requires all the aid of romance to imagine, much less to describe:—of fertility, which it requires but the fostering hand of man to guide to all the purposes of life, and of a climate the most salubrious among the Antilles, and in which longevity is general.—" In these delightful countries too," observes Robertson, " Nature seemed to assume another form; every tree and plant, and animal, was different from those of the ancient hemisphere;"—Columbus boasted of having discovered the *original seat of Paradise*.—" In these delightful vales," exclaims the Abbé Raynal, " all the sweets of spring are enjoyed, without either winter or summer. There are but two seasons in the year, and they are equally fine. The ground, always laden with fruit, and covered with flowers, realizes the delights and riches of poetical descriptions. Wherever we turn our eyes, we are enchanted with a variety of objects coloured and reflected by the clearest light. The air is temperate in the day time, and the nights are constantly cool."—" In a country of such magnitude," says Edwards, " diversified with plains of vast extent, and mountains of prodigious height, is probably to be found every species of soil which nature has assigned to all the tropical parts of the earth. In general it is fertile in the highest degree, every where well watered, and producing almost every variety of vegetable nature and beauty for use, for food, and luxury, which the lavish hand of a bountiful providence has bestowed on the richest portion of the globe."—" The possessions of *France* in this noble island," he continues, " were considered as the garden of the West Indies, and for beautiful scenery, richness of soil, salubrity, and variety of climate, might justly be deemed the paradise of the new world."—" What you have said," replies De Charmilly, animadverting on the preceding passage, " is *nothing* when it is known that the extent of the French part is but one half of that of the Spanish division, and that this is yet more fertile than the French part, requiring only cultivators.'

The progress of the French interest in this noble island is traced from its commencement to the period of 1789, when it is said that

> 'The French establishment reached a height superior*, in St. Domingo, not only to all other colonial possessions, but to the conception of the philosopher and politician; its private luxury, and its

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'* The population was considered at about 40,000 whites, 500,000 negroe slaves, and 24,000 free people of colour; and the average exports, as stated by M. Marbois, the intendant of the colony, amounted to 4,765,129*l.* sterling.'

degrading light, that he deems them capable of the
intellectual cultivation; and his short residence amo
led him to observe traits of character, from which
duced to augur well of their exertions for the establish
civil liberty. If we do not entirely adopt his sanguin
we cannot accede to the opposite notion that these pe
destined for slaves, and that it is the will of Provide
they should ever be in subjection to the Whites. Yet
perhaps too small to constitute an empire absolutel
pendent; the European interest in the West Indies
view such an establishment with complacency; and i
bable, unless other revolutions favourable to its agg
ment should occur in that quarter of the globe, tha
ultimately be forced to become an appendage of a mor
state. Though a reduction to its former situation ma
possible, it may yet be obliged to own a degree of
ance.

The revolutionary spirit in St. Domingo is said
owed its birth to an ignorance of human nature, to a b
to actual circumstances, and to a want of individual
the colonists, who fanned the spark of revolution into
by the events which took place in the relations of th
with the mother-country, on the change of its gove
We shall not here review this part of the French hist
dwell on the measures of folly and of blood by wh
fertile island was at length severed from the Gallic yo
the occurrences of the expeditions to this colony have
tailed in our public journals, and must be fresh in
mories of our readers, we shall not copy gazettes; pref

shew, was the chasteness of true taste always neglected. Their etiquette extended to a degree of refinement scarcely to be conceived; and the service of their domestics, among whom were, from what cause was not ascertained, some mulattoes, was performed with more celerity than in many instances in Europe. A conscious ease, and certain *gaieté de cœur*, presided over every repast. Conversation had free scope, except as related to their own former circumstances, but when the defence of their country was the subject, every eye filled with fire, and every tongue shouted—Victory! The names of some, who had seceded from the black army, were the only objects that seemed to excite detestation. In many instances the writer has heard reasoning, and witnessed manners of acuteness and elegance, the relation of which would appear incredible, from those who were remembered in a state of servitude, or whose parents were in situations of abject penury; while sallies of wit, not frequently surpassed, have enlivened many an hour. It would ill become him, notwithstanding the tide of prejudice, which has always pervaded his assertions, to suppose his readers capable of gratification from the chit chat of a St. Domingo table; and it would be equally unjust to employ the opportunities afforded him by unguarded kindness, in the accumulation of fleeting anecdotes, arising from domestic privacy; he therefore contents himself with stating, that the enjoyments of life were to be found in a high degree in the capital of St. Domingo, and that their alloy did not exceed, nor perhaps always equal, that of ancient European cities.

'The men were in general sensible and polite, often dignified and impressive; the women frequently elegant and engaging. The intercourse of the sexes was on the most rational footing, and the different degrees of colour which remained, had lost most of that natural hostility which formerly existed. Several Americans had intermarried with ladies of colour very advantageously, and to appearance happily. They were, generally, very agreeable women, and felt no inequality in their difference of complexion or nation. Like Sappho, they could plead, (in many instances, in point of wit, sprightliness, and pathos, little inferior to the Lesbian muse, though without her powers of song)

"Brown though I am, an Ethiopian dame
Inspir'd young Perseus with a generous flame;
Turtles and doves of different hues unite,
And glossy black is pair'd with shining white."

That the cottage life of the St. Domingo negroes was more comfortable than it is generally imagined to have been may be collected from an anecdote which is thus related:

'In one instance, the writer was introduced by a brigand of peculiar intelligence, (with whom he had frequent conferences on the military tactics of the black army) to the cottage of a black laborer, of whom an account may not be uninteresting. He had a family of thirteen children; eight of them by one woman, and the remainder by two others; the former only lived with him in the same cottage, with his mother, who was aged and infirm ; the other two, separately, at a small distance. This man was an epitome of legislature, and his family a well regulated kingdom in miniature. His cottage consisted of three irregular apartments, the first of which was his refectory, where, as often as possible, and always on *jours de fêtes*, his subjects assembled,.including on those occasions his three wives. The furniture of this apartment was entirely of his own making, even to the smallest utensil, and with an ingenuity beyond what might be expected from perfect leisure ; notwithstanding the artificer, during the process. had been obliged to attend his labor in the fields, and was a considerable time in arms. On a neat shelf, appropriated peculiarly to their use, lay a mass book, and a mutilated volume of Volney's Travels, some parts of which he understood more than his visitor. Every thing convenience required was to be found on a small scale, and the whole so compact, and clean, with such an air of *properté* throughout as was absolutely attractive. His own bed-room was furnished with an improved bedstead, supported by trussels, with a mattress and bedding of equal quality with the other furniture, but that of his children and mother surpassed the whole. One bedstead contained them, yet separated the male from the female, the young from the aged, and was separated or combined in an instant.—The third was his kitchen and store-house, and might also be called his laboratory, for conveniences were found for chemical experiments, though not of the most scientific kind ; but every utensil for culinary purposes was provided in the best manner. The wife of this laborer (for he had submitted to the ceremony of marriage with the female who had borne him the most children, as is the general custom with them) was nearly as ingenious as himself, and equally intelligent. The mode he pursued in the regulation of his domestic economy was excellent ; as continence is not a virtue of the blacks, the increase of his family was not confined to his own house ; yet, even in his amours he was just ; and as the two mothers before-mentioned were less protected than his ostensible wife, the primary object of his consideration was to have the whole of his children under his own care. This was reconciled to all parties from the first, in so mild a way, that no distinction was perceivable but in age, while the mothers held a relationship to their domiciliated offspring similiar to that of an aunt or cousin, each exerting herself for the purpose of adding to the comforts of her own child —On festive occasions, the two mothers sat alternately on the right or left of the mistress of the house, with as much etiquette as might be perceived in a more elevated station, and with the utmost harmony. The master of the family was absolute, but with him it was in theory, not in practice, for all seemed to vie in forbearance. As soon as the children could contribute their little powers to labor, they were employed ; the younger (except as regarded their strength) being subject to the inferior offices ; and, singular as it may appear, on the festive occasions alluded to, they waited upon their seniors, though but by a few years, and seemed delighted in the office. Agreeable to this rule, in accordance with that reverence for age so remarkable among blacks of every condition, the grandmother received the affection and attention of all ; and though often crabbed, infirm, and discontented, no one seemed to consider her failings as such, but as a duty prescribed them to bear.

'In fact the writer considered this numerous family, as he beheld them at their frugal meal, a model for domestic life, with a proof that those jarring interests, which, in the smallest connection, as well as in the largest states, creating more embarrassment than the most adverse circumstances, or the greatest crimes, may be avoided by a generous conduct, and reciprocal kindness. He need scarcely add, happy was his humble friend, or that each individual of his family, in their separate capacities, laid up a store of happiness for themselves, and those around them.'

While the author was under sentence of death as a supposed spy, waiting the final decision of Toussaint, he was confined in a kind of cage with iron bars in front: in which situation, he experienced the benevolent attentions of a female of colour, whose elegant figure Mr. R. has represented in an annexed plate; and in prose he endeavours to display the united graces of her person and mind:

'After lying two nights on a couch, formed of dried sugar-canes, with a very slender supply of food, the prisoner had resigned himself to the vacuity of despair; he was stretched out in silent agony, when, as the night closed in, and the mirthful troops had progressively retired, a gentle female voice, with the tenderest accents, aroused his attention. How long the benign object had been there, he could not ascertain; but, when he looked up, and beheld her, his feelings were indescribable: she was a fine figure, rather tall, and slender, with a face most beautiful, and a form of the finest symmetry, improved by the melancholy air which the scene had given her. She was dressed in a superior style, and possessed all the elegance of European manners, improved by the most expressive carriage. She held a basket, containing the most delicate food, with the finest fruits: she entreated him to receive them silently, and to destroy any remnants, as a discovery would be fatal to her, and prejudicial to himself. He was about to reply with the ardour of gratitude, when, in an instant, she was gone! On the following evening, she returned, and endeavoured to comfort him with the most obliging expressions; and, by evincing extreme anxiety on his behalf, once more light up the illusion of hope in his breast, which he had abandoned, with all human prospects, for ever. The next evening she repeated her visit, and condescended to favor him with more extensive communication. Still not a word occured to disclose her name, or situation: once, indeed, she made some distant allusions to the English, which led him to imagine, she had been impressed with gratitude towards the country by some obligation. Whatever her name, or whatever her circumstances, if this slight memorial should live to reach that delightful isle, in which, as an angelic representation of mercy, she may yet stay the hand of the destroyer, it will bear to her the sincere effusions of a grateful heart, which, though bruised by those of a fairer skin, can never discharge its sense of duty *.

'On the morn of the fifteenth day, when he had ventured to disengage himself of a part of his dress, for the purpose of a temporary relief from the weight of his chains, the answer of Toussaint arrived, bringing instead of (as was fully expected) the confirmation of the sentence, an order from that truly great man for his release, and to be suffered to proceed on his voyage, with this prohibition, conveyed with much shrewdness, but the greatest magnanimity; "That he must never return to this island without *proper passports!*"'

Contemplating the character of Toussaint both in public and private life, as here exhibited, it is impossible not to lament his cruel destiny, or to restrain our abhorrence of the treachery of Le Clerc, and of the despotic vengeance of Bonaparte. If we cannot rescue his corpse from the dark and damp dungeon in which he fell a sacrifice, we wish to assist in rendering justice to his fame; and for this purpose we shall copy the portrait which Mr. R. has drawn of him:

'It probably may be expected that something should be mentioned of the general character of Toussaint; and, if there was any object predominant in the wishes of the writer during his sojourn at the Cape, it was—to ascertain the traits of peculiarity in that individual—to judge of the views, and of the motives that actuated him. The result of his observations was in every respect favorable to this truly great man. Casual acts of justice and benignity may mark the reign of anarchy itself, and complacency sometimes smooth the brow of the most brutal tyrant; but when the man, possessed for a considerable period, of unlimited power, (of whose good actions no venal journalist was the herald, but, to transcribe his errors a thousand competitors were ready) has never been charged with its abuse; but, on the contrary, has preserved one line of conduct, founded by sound sense and acute discernment on the most honourable basis, leaning

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'* I have ever conceived this adventure as highly illustrative of the character of the sex conveyed in the eulogium of Lediard, (the traveller in Africa) which contains sentiments I have always delighted to repeat.—"I have," says he, "always remarked, that women, in all countries, are civil, obliging, tender, and humane; that they are ever inclined to be gay and cheerful, timorous and modest; and, that they do not hesitate, like men, to perform a kind, or generous action. Not haughty nor arrogant, nor supercilious, they are full of courtesy, and fond of society more liable in general to err than man, but in general, also, more virtuous, and performing more good actions than he. To a woman, whether civilized or savage, I never addressed myself in the language of decency and friendship, without receiving a decent and friendly answer. With man it has often been otherwise."

'With many opportunities of judging in various countries, and in various situations, I warmly subscribe to this just encomium.'

to actions of magnanimity and goodness; he has passed the
gest test to which he can be submitted; who, with the frailties
uman nature, and without the adventitious aids of those born to
, held one of the highest situations in society.

His government does not appear to have been sullied by the in-
sce of any ruling passion; if a thirst of power had prompted him
e, he would have soon ceased to be a leader of insurgents; had
ice swayed him, he, like many others, could have retired early in
contest, with immense riches, to the neighbouring continent; or
l a sanguinary revenge occupied his mind, he would not so often
e offered those pathetic appeals to the understanding, which were
sport of his colleagues on crimes which the governors of nations
g *civilized* would have sentenced to torture! His principles,
en becoming an actor in the revolution of his country, were as
e and legitimate, as those which actuated the great founders of
rty in any former age or clime.

Such was the character of Toussaint L'Ouverture, as regarded
office of Commander in Chief, and Governor of the island of St.
mingo. In his relations towards other countries, he appears to
e excited admiration for his justice, and the courtesy of every en-
itened state: the charges of his most inveterate enemies never ex-
ded to a fact that can diminish the well-earned eulogies he has ob-
ied. His rules of conduct were the emanations of a mind capa-
us and well informed; and but for the exertions of his talents, or
se of some chief equally able, indefatigable, and sincere, the
ntry, now blooming with culture, and advancing in true civiliza-
, might have been a ruined state, sacrificed to the conflicts of dis-
ointed ambition, revenge, and the whole train of evils which a
tiplicity of factions could create That there should be found
izans of each of these factions in the then divided state of France,
omplain of every arrangement formed by this astonishing indi-
al, is to be expected, rather than wondered at; and to these mo-
alone, there is no reason to doubt, may be ascribed all the
mnies which have been vented against him.

In his private life, Toussaint lost none of the excellence of that
acter which is conspicuous in his public actions. With much
ibility, he supported an even temper in domestic privacy; and in
ra-distinction to the general custom of other great men, might be
sidered equally an hero in the closet as the field. To his wife, a
ible and affectionate woman, he behaved with the most endear-
tenderness and consideration, and to his children imparted all the
mth of paternal affection; yet he had no overweening fondness
conceal their faults from his notice, even the smallest want of
per attention to an inferior was censured with severity propor-
ate to the difference of their condition. If they obtained not
wledge from the transitory nature of human circumstances, so
ssary to check the pride of birth or situation, almost always
ifest in children reared in affluence, it was not the fault of a fa-
whose life was conspicuous for humility of disposition, and a dif-
nce of his powers, proportionable to the elevation of his rank, or
accumulation of his honors. As his children grew to an age

capable of that education which his individual acquirements instructed him as necessary to the sphere of life in which they were to move, Toussaint procured for them the best tutors he could obtain, and afterwards sent them to France under their care, for the advantage of higher instruction.—His leisure, which was not great, was occupied in relieving those who suffered in any way undeservedly; nor did he, as is often the case in the world, weigh guilt by incapacity or distinction. The weak of every description were his peculiar care; the strong in intellect, the mighty in war, or the amiable in domestic life, shared alike his esteem.

'In person, Toussaint was of a manly form, above the middle stature, with a countenance bold and striking, yet full of the most prepossessing suavity—terrible to an enemy, but inviting to the objects of his friendship or his love. His manners and his deportment were elegant when occasion required, but easy and familiar in common;—when an inferior addressed him, he bent with the most obliging assiduity, and adapted himself precisely, without seeming condescension, to their peculiar circumstances. He received in public a general and voluntary respect, which he was anxious to return, or rather to prevent, by the most pleasing civilities. His uniform was a kind of blue jacket, with a large red cape falling over the shoulders; red cuffs, with eight rows of lace on the arms, and a pair of large gold epaulettes thrown back; scarlet waistcoat and pantaloons, with half boots; round hat, with a red feather, and a national cockade; these, with an extreme large sword, formed his equipment.—He was an astonishing horseman, and travelled with inconceivable rapidity.'

In announcing the melancholy termination of his career, he is termed 'the great, the good, the pious, and benevolent Toussaint L'Ouverture.'—Many attractive anecdotes are also inserted, corroborative of this high eulogium.

Having observed in the concluding chapter, that 'the close of the year 1804 was the end of that eventful revolution, in which the Imperial dignity was the reward of the courage and experience of the chief (Dessalines), who, profiting by the misfortune of his brave and good predecessor, had more successfully combated his enemies;' the author proceeds to consider the probable effects of this colonial revolution. He is of opinion that, if judicious and humane measures are pursued by proprietors in the islands of the West Indian Archipelago, and particularly if they be careful to diffuse morality among the Blacks, little danger is to be apprehended from this colony of manumitted slaves. According to him, 'the negroes, though sufficiently warlike and vindictive, when roused by revenge, court quiet, and are *ardent* in all the relations of life when kindly treated by their superiors.' Impressed with this favourable idea of their character, he deems it probable that the people of Hayti will be disinclined to expeditions for conquest; that they do not wish for the maritime power so absolutely necessary for an attack on the other islands; and that many difficulties occur to prevent such a scheme. Mr. R., however, does not presume to decide on what may happen in the course of time: but, regarding it as impossible to reduce the Negroes of St. Domingo to their former state of slavery, he cautions the planters in the other islands and the Governments of Europe to pursue a wise policy, in order that the late Revolution in the most splendid colony of the Antilles may not prove injurious to their interest and dominion.

The style of this work is not every where correct, and the author's views are not always sufficiently dispassionate: but, as his details are interesting and important, and as his prejudices incline to the side of humanity, we are not disposed to criticize minute faults, nor rigorously to restrain an amiable excess.

Art. X. *Measures as well as Men:* or the Present and Future Interests of Great Britain; with a Plan for rendering us a martial as well as a commercial People, and providing a military Force adequate to the Exigencies of the Empire, and the Security of the United Kingdom. 8vo. pp. 218. 5s. sewed. Johnson. 1806.

We have the misfortune to be of too inert a nature to soar with the author of this pamphlet to those sublime heights, whence he discerns that state of the human race in which the dreams of the golden age, and the felicity of the millenium, will be realized. Yet, though to our dull understandings the scenes here anticipated are chimerical, and the hopes indulged are extravagant, we do not deny that remarks are made, and hints thrown out, which deserve the attention of the more temperate friends of mankind.—His name does not appear in the title-page, but we understand that these *Measures* owe their origin to George Edwards, Esq., M.D. whose prolific pen has already given birth to various similar publications; (see Rev. N.S. Vol. iv. pp. 67. and 73.—Vol. xxxiv. p. 213.—Vol. xl. p. 106. &c.); and by whom another work in three 8vo. volumes now waits our attention.

Dr. Edwards thus briefly states the grounds on which the fair fabric of society, from which he expects so much benefit, is to be erected:

'Human welfare, however, is fixed, and can be established alone on the twelve grand foundations provided for it, that embrace respectively the several powers of universal good known in this life; and by completing them, and deriving from them the means essential to the consummation of the destiny of man. These foundations are the 12 heads of the grand system of general welfare, and are: 1, Government: 2, Public Agency: 3, Politics: 4, Finance: 5, Agriculture: 6, General Industry, manual and intellectual: 7, Commerce: 8, 8, Mental Instruction: 9, Religion: 10, Medicine: 11, Practical Jurisprudence, or the Law: and 12, Public Philanthropy, or the appropriate means of advancing individual prosperity and happiness. For it is certain from induction, that man neither knows nor can comprehend any good, or the means of effecting any good, that may not be referred to one or other of the twelve heads: and as either an omission or defect in the subordinate parts of one of these heads cannot occur without injurious consequences to the human race, so each head fully and perfectly constituted is necessary to complete the lot of mankind.'

While treating of the vices and defects of the false system of general welfare, Dr. E. calls our attention to the abuses which it has occasioned, and the course and progress of which he describes much at length:

'One of these sources (he states) is that predatory disposition, which impels nations to seize the possessions, property and riches of one another, either by open war, or by fraudulent commerce; and may be referred to their ignorance, as well as to their avarice and ambition. I say to their ignorance, for, possessing capital, population, and science, or useful knowledge, it is much more the interest of each nation to complete, by means of these, it's internal and colonial improvements, than to prey upon others; and it is for it's real advantage to permit other nations to become rich, in order to be valuable customers. The only true policy is, to allow the golden eggs to remain and multiply in their respective matrices; not by ripping these open, to desolate and impoverish the World.'

This picture, we presume, is intended for modern France: but let us not prematurely indulge feelings of exultation, since our own portrait, which immediately follows it, is not more flattering:

'Another source, (says the author) is a certain modification of the preceding. This is a policy, which leads nations to acquire riches from others by an exclusive monopoly of foreign commerce and aggrandizement, in order to carry on war; and which on the other hand, prosecuting war for the purpose of supporting these views, expends far more riches, and destroys infinitely greater resources of internal prosperity, than they can possibly acquire by such a commercial phrensy. This species of political immorality is accompanied by a restless and giddy inquietude of mind, and violence of passionate deception, which lead us to sanction every favourite scheme, indulge all our prejudices, suppose the balance of power always in danger, and make a plaything of war; while we give the worst measures the appellation of lawful sources of wealth, the true objects of British enterprise, fair grounds of ministerial fame, the proper means for satisfying the calls of corruption, and innocent resources for supplying curiosity with news. Wars that ensue from this species of immorality being of longer duration, and at last becoming perpetual, are the worst wars to mankind.'

Among other means for establishing the new and complete æra of human prosperity, here held up to view, are a military em extremely similar to that which has been recently pted, and a real and cordial peace with France.

This tract seeks to draw attention to certain plans for melio- ing human affairs which are disclosed in the other works of . Edwards, and on which, in his present anonymous cha- ter, he here bestows high praises. He is of opinion that, in der to remedy our social ills, to remove our interior griev- ces, to stand well abroad, and to be a flourishing and happy ople at home, we have only to give due consideration to the unsels to which he thus refers, and to unite all hearts and nds in order to reduce them to practice. Faith and works e required of the disciples of this new gospel. They must lieve in the efficacy of the plan, and in the infallibility its founder; they must hold it to be their first duty and eir highest honour to co-operate in what is here called 'the t of practical improvement,' in order to introduce and esta- ish what is denominated 'the system of general welfare,' or he kingdom of God;' or in other words that political and iritual order of things which Dr. Edwards has a mission to fold and recommend.

Though the changes which the new faith contemplates are ry considerable, they appear rather to affect the sentiments d pursuits of individuals, than political and social arrange- nts; the relations of men, it would seem, are to continue ach the same, while the motives and views which actuate em are to undergo an entire revolution;—monarchs are not be stripped of their crowns,—the privileged orders are not be divested of their rank,—the senate, the church, the pro- sions, and the several classes of active life, are still to retain ir appellations, though their exertions are to assume new ections. Of the functions assigned to the monarch we hly approve: but, if heaven does not impart the necessary sdom to the individual on whom the crown devolves, we r that the 'system of general welfare' will be endangered.— e Houses of Parliament are to discard, as pernicious and rile, the flourishes and displays about which they are at sent occupied, and to become schools in which 'the art of ctical improvement' is to be exclusively pursued. The rch is to form men to that religious and moral purity, ich is essential to the prevalence and continuance of 'the tem of general welfare.' The profession of the law is assist in devising the best legislative regulations, and in ancing the real ends of justice. Commerce is to rise above lousies, and to derive its interests from the abundance which to be consequent on universal prosperity. Medicine is to orm itself still farther in regard to the nature and causes of diseases, in order to soften and diminish the physical ills which beset humanity.

In the new system, general philanthropy is not pursued in the disregard of patriotism, but they are represented as perfectly consistent; the apostle of this new order of things, however, confines the most voluminous of his works to the care of Great Britain alone. The substance of his advice to his countrymen, as here disclosed, is to have faith in his plan of general welfare; to trust alone to this, and not to ministers, nor to any man or set of men: since, according to him, the several successions of ministers which we have witnessed, by pursuing the maxims of former times, by following precedents, by moving in the routine of office, by engaging in wars, and by imposing intolerable burthens, have brought on the declension of liberty and a vast accumulation of misery. We are told that we are in the sure road to destruction, and advancing in the course with accelerated velocity: but, if we are bent on the salvation of the empire, we must have recourse to men who, by 'the art of practical improvement,' will introduce the new and perfect dispensation developed and proclaimed by Dr. Edwards.

Bulky as this pamphlet is, it only announces and panegyrizes the labours of the apostle of the new gospel. Within the same compass, the marrow of the system might have been given; and it certainly would have been more gratifying than lamentations over ills which all admit, and invectives against abuses which none can deny, accompanied by endless repetitions of assurances that, in certain works, efficacious remedies are pointed out, and extravagant praises of those remedies. In this way, the greater part of the tract is occupied. The writer appears as if he were afraid to make too free with the wonderful treatises to which he refers us, and to disclose too much of the systems which they teach.—In the visions of reformers, however, and the schemes of projectors, the wise and the judicious often discover ideas by which they may profit; and we are of opinion that, on this ground, the lucubrations before us may not disadvantageously occupy a few hours of the leisure of sober men.

ART. XI. *The Dangers of the Country.* By the Author of War in Disguise*. 8vo. pp. 227. 5s. Butterworth. 1807.

THIS author is master of an eloquent pen, writes in an excellent temper and from the most pure motives, and possessed of various and important information. Of the ent pamphlet, however, the first part is not, we think, mposed in his happiest manner; it has not his usual animan, it dwells too much on suppositions which are revolting, d it displays a *sang froid* in treating of them for which we e at a loss to account. We would not be understood to ispute the important nature of the considerations which, even this division of his tract, he submits to the government and eople of this country: they doubtless well merit their atteni on: but we object to the mode in which they are conveyed. hese pages exhibit the picture of Great Britain as a province f France. If it were allowable to sketch such a painting, only e outlines and leading features ought to have been given, d all that was minute and particular should have been exded. Let us collect together all the horrors which have tended the subjugation of countries in past times; and we ay rest assured that they will be realized, if ever Great Briin be subdued by its present relentless and implacable enemy. he gigantic evil should have been alone held up to view: the inor mischiefs serve to weaken and not to heighten the effect.— Vhile, however, we thus state our own feelings, on perusing is part of the author's labours, let it not be thought that we e wanting in respect to the patriotic views and upright inntions, which so honourably distinguish the performances of is gentleman.

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* See Rev. Vol. xlviii. N. S. p. 417.

Friends to peace, we own that we lend an unwilling ear to ose who press on us the unwelcome proposition, that it is in resent circumstances more to be deprecated than desired. Yet, hen we find a writer of the grave and serious turn, and of e respectable character, which belong to this author, inculting so afflicting a sentiment, we cannot decline to give it ir most anxious attention; and if we have not in this inance been convinced, we have been so far impressed as to em it a duty to lay before our readers a few of the leading ssages which relate to this subject.—In entering on this pic, he expresses himself in the following modest and beming terms:

'To censure a great political measure of the present able and englitened cabinet, is perhaps presumptuous in a private indiviial; and is a work which I perform with regret. I am conious that the awful considerations which may weigh in the choice tween a pacific or warlike system, cannot be perfectly known to e public at large; and the distinguished talents now united in the inistry, certainly challenge the strongest general confidence in the isdom of our councils. Yet I dare not suppress at this awful conncture, a very sincere, though perhaps erroneous opinion, that a peace with France, if accomplished by the late negociations, would have been fatal to the security of the Country.'—

'The true objections to the measure then, as well as at the present more awful crisis, apply to the unavoidable nature and effects of any treaty that could be proposed; not to its particular terms; yet we heard of "a good peace," and "an honourable peace," as proper to be treated for with France. For my part, if the possibility of a safe Peace can be shewn, I will heartily admit, be its articles what they may, that it is good for my country in these evil times; and not dishonourable to her, but glorious to those who may make it. But while no such peace is to be hoped for, I would not treat; because I would not lead the people of England into the dangerous error of supposing, that peace with France in her present attitude, is compatible with their safety; nor would I lead the people of Europe, and America, to believe that England is of that opinion.'

The writer thinks that Bonaparte will again offer us the *uti possidetis*, but with this he is not contented; and nothing short of the *status quo ante bellum* for ourselves and our allies will satisfy him.

'But this, (says he) it may be exclaimed, it would be preposterous to expect at present from France. I admit it; and therefore it would be preposterous to expect at present a peace safe for Great Britain. The impossibility consists in this, that France *will not* relinquish her new possessions on the continent; and that therefore Great Britain cannot safely relinquish her undivided possession of the sea. We cannot do so, not only because we should, by opening the sea to our enemy, enable him soon to become a formidable maritime power, but because his usurped Empire on shore would become far more terrible and irresistible than it is, were its commercial communications restored. We dare not give him back his navigation, and let him keep all his new territory too.

'These principles, in any day but the present, would have needed no demonstration. If we can safely make peace with France in her present most alarming attitude, we have been fighting since 1793, and even in all our wars since the treaty of Ryswick, not only without necessity, but upon the most irrational and extravagant views that ever governed the policy of a nation.'

Granting the premises, this reasoning is forcible: but the ineligibility of a peace on any other terms than those of the *status quo ante bellum* must first be proved; and who can point out a period at which such extreme terms are likely to be obtained? The consequence, then, must be *permanent* war.

In the following passage, the author suggests an idea which, it is exceedingly to be regretted, was not sufficiently considered before it was too late:

'There was a time perhaps, when it might have been more prudent to open the sea to France, leaving her in a state of great continental aggrandizement, than to risque her pushing her conquests ill further, if that could have been prevented by any pacific conntions that we had power to make, for ourselves and our allies; but there was ever a proper season for such policy, it plainly exists longer; and this, not only because our enemy has shewn that no nfidence can be placed in any treaty which opposes his thirst of niversal empire; but because it may now fairly be doubted, wheher any further increase of his dominions would really add to his ower.'

The writer next expresses a sentiment that has been before advanced, but on which we cannot too frequently reflect:

'For my own part, however singular the opinion may seem, I should have less apprehension of danger from the arms of Napoleon, if the remaining territories of Prussia, and Austria, and even the immense domains of Russia, and Turkey, were added to his conquests, than I feel at the present moment. At sea, the acquisition of every bottom still friendly to this country, would not now enable him to cope with us; and on shore, he has power enough already for our destruction, when it can be brought into action against us. The momentum of the vast machine, on its present scale, is more than we can hope finally to resist: but every enlargement of its dimensions, and multiplication of its intricate movements, increases its tendencies to interior derangement; and therefore, without adding to our immediate peril, improves our chance of escape. Buonaparte has hitherto been so astonishingly prudent, or fortunate, that we naturally begin to doubt whether there be any thing too difficult for him to accomplish; but his power is already composed of so many discordant elements, that their cohesion is truly wonderful: and as he proceeds, he is gaming at double or quits. Even the large armies, which he has to station in so many conquered countries will soon be very difficult to govern: they, or their generals, will probably recollect, that the Roman legions bestowed the purple, as well as kept the provinces in subjection; and revolutions in this extraordinary age move with a celerity of which history has no example.'

It is the opinion of this author that, if peace be made, hostility will still be continued by the enemy against our commerce:

'It is impossible, (he observes,) when we consider Napoleon's maxims of commercial policy, to doubt that he will avail himself, as soon as the sea is open, of all his enormous power and influence, to exclude us by means of treaties, and of municipal laws, not only from France, but from every other country in Europe, to the Government of which he can dictate. With a sincerity unusual to him, he has already pretty plainly intimated that such will be his pacific system, by protesting, in limine, when he began to negociate, against every stipulation in favour of our commerce. He would have no commercial treaties with us whatever.

'And here I must own myself quite at a loss to comprehend the views of those, who regard the interests of our commerce and manufactures, as considerations on the side of peace That such is not the

opinion

opinion of our merchants in general, is well known; and yet they judge perhaps only from the necessary effects of a free peace competition against them, under the present great disadvantages of the country without taking into the account the unfair preferences and exclusions, to be systematically opposed to them in foreign countries.

'Who that attentively considers the spirit of Napoleon's late decree against our commerce, can be insensible to the danger of his acting on the same principle in time of peace? He might then perhaps find means to carry into effect, what he now impotently threatens. The necessities of his subjects, and of the subjects of his allies and dependents, will secure to us their custom during war, in spite of his prohibitions; for it cannot be supposed that our Government will omit to employ the obvious means of counteracting them. I hope rather that we shall embrace the fair opportunity which it affords of asserting more firmly our maritime rights, and thereby giving new vigour to British commerce. But when we shall have no longer the power of opposing to regulations on shore, the pressure of our hostilities by sea; when the ships of France, Spain, Holland, Genoa, and Venice, and all the other maritime Countries now hostile to us, shall be able to navigate without interruption, on every voyage, and with every species of merchandize; the same interdict on our trade, in the inoffensive form of municipal laws, may produce the desired effect, and gradually exclude us from almost all the ports of Europe.

'Commerce, it is true, will force its way in spite of prohibitions, where the demand and the profits sufficiently excite the enterprise of the merchant; but it is difficult to believe that the manufactures and trade of this country, under the extreme pressure of our public burthens, will long retain inherent energy enough in the comparative cheapness and skill with which they are conducted, to supplant other maritime nations, in their own, or neighbouring markets; and if by a hostile system which we cannot retaliate, they shall be further encumbered with all the disadvantages and risques of a contraband carriage, while our rivals can trade safely, and with every encouragement that commercial laws can afford, I see not how we can hope long to maintain the unequal contest. In this view the comparison between peace and war is plain and simple. Napoleon is fully resolved to deprive us of the commerce of the continent; but in war he has the inclination without the power; in peace he will have both. He holds the continental gates of the market; but in war we command all the roads that lead to it, and can therefore starve him into the admission of our trade:—in peace, the roads will be free to him, and he will still command the gates.'

We allow some force to an observation made by this author, which is founded on the ruling passion of Bonaparte; 'his personal feelings,' he states, 'still more than his interest or his policy render his adherence to a pacific system utterly hopeless. Neither the example of the administration which treated at Amiens, nor that of the present cabinet and Mr. Fox, would afford any sanction for a new experiment on the good faith and moderation of France, after the battle of Auerstadt and the total ruin of Prussia.' He moreover regards it 'as very doubtful whether a steady prosecution of the war be not the most economical, as well as the safest course, we can at present pursue.'—He admits, however, that 'permanent war is a dreadful idea; but let it be contrasted, as to meet fairly the present arguments for war it ought, with permanent servitude to France, and perhaps its horrors will vanish.'

This tract contains abundance of matter which claims the most serious attention:—but to the remainder of it we can make only a brief reference.—The writer considers our regular army as formed on much too small a scale; and he regards our volunteer force as requiring to be very differently modelled. We believe that similar sentiments are very prevalent; and we sincerely trust that the author may be successful in rousing public attention, and in directing it to these vital concerns.—He displays in striking colours the vices which degrade the character of the French chief; and he strenuously combats his title to the epithet of great, which his enslaved subjects have conferred on him. Altogether, we consider this performance as not unworthy of its author, and as one for which every lover of his country will feel indebted to him.

Art. XII. *Orme's Graphic History of the Life, Exploits, and Death of Horatio Nelson, Viscount and Baron Nelson of the Nile,* &c. &c. &c.; containing 15 Engravings; and intended as an Accompaniment to the three celebrated Whole-sheet Plates of his Lordship's splendid Victories, viz. the Battles of St. Vincent's, the Nile, and Trafalgar, which are explained by References and Keys. The Memoirs by Francis William Blagdon, Esq. Folio. 2l. 2s. Boards. Orme, Longman and Co. &c.

The brilliancy of Lord Nelson's professional career, through a series of unprecedented national services, and the splendour which illumined the close of a life so gloriously eventful, claim adequate commemoration from the poet, the historian, and the artist. Ordinary productions, however, are as inefficacious as they should be inadmissible: though the venerated name of Nelson may give temporary currency to every species of insufficient performance, whether of the pen, the lyre, or the pencil.—On the importance of engraving, that most useful handmaid to the arts, it is needless for us to comment at large; and we shall merely observe that its relative utility to works of design is as that of the press to the efforts of the muse and the labours of science. This invaluable acquirement, we have reason to believe, was unknown in Greece and in Italy until the 15th century; otherwise, we should probably have been in possession of the historic compositions of Apelles, Zeuxis, Pharasius, and other painters of the interesting ages of antiquity; and in architecture we should have been presented with the drawings of Vitruvius, which would have satisfactorily elucidated many ambiguities that now cloud his valuable writings.—The discovery of the graphic art seems, as was the case with that of printing, to have been accidental: the first plates used were wood and pewter, on which some German painters, with Albert Durer and others, engraved their own designs; and they were followed in example by many of the most celebrated of the Italian Schools.

To Mr. Orme's Graphic History of Lord Nelson, perhaps we cannot offer more than negative applause: but positive approbation must be bestowed on it in one respect, if we be truly informed that the proprietor has departed from a practice of late date, of striking from the plate numerous impressions under the delusive title of *proof prints*: a practice which involves a contradiction in terms, is contrary to every former proceeding, disgusting to our senses, and degrading to the dignity of an art emphatically termed liberal.

It is here stated that 'on the 4th of July 1806, a committee of nobility, *surveyors*, &c. viewed the cathedral of St. Paul, and determined that the most appropriate spot for the intended monument to Lord Nelson's memory was in the centre, beneath the dome, where it is to be erected without delay.' With all due respect to the enlightened part of the aristocracy, who have been poetically called the "Corinthian pillars of polished Society," we cannot help thinking that the circumstance of these nobles mingling with *surveyors*, on so important a consultation, bodes no good. Of what description of artists were the persons here called *surveyors?* To answer the question, we shall in vain consult the pages of Vitruvius, Vasari, &c. Yet, whoever they might be, we are bound to applaud their determination: for the propriety of which we have the authority of Sir Christopher Wren, whose comprehensive power of discernment cannot be doubted, grounded as he was known to be in every branch of science, and pre-eminently versed in the law of optics. He was well aware that such an object was materially necessary for the classic embellishment of his noble edifice, and could only be attained by the aid of a mass of happily chosen sculpture;—and who could blame him for wishing that it might be made his own monument,—he who " bade temples rise, the beauteous works of peace?"

Since this publication was printed, however, we have heard, with no common degree of concern, that the resolution of the Committee has been rescinded; and we have also the mortification of stating that the designs which we have seen, and which have been prepared for the consideration of the Committee, are in our opinion totally unworthy of adoption: the best being essentially defective in all that relates to those high considerations, which can alone procure fame for the labours of the sculptor. In the event of any one of those models being adopted, or any other that is equally insipid, or equally bombastic, farewell to our fond expectation of a splendid and Attic display of meritorious and successful exertions! The more such a monument to Lord Nelson's memory may be concealed, the better, since its obscurity will prevent the future expence and trouble of its removal: a vexatious expence, and a degrading trouble, which, it is whispered, will be caused by the last *two nameless* national monuments that have been erected within St. Paul's Cathedral. If a third monument should submit to the same fate, it will be the more suitable to its demerits, and will afford relief to the now suffering eye!

We return to Mr. Orme's 'Graphic history.' Plate 1. presents a commendable representation of a black chalk drawing, made from a marble bust of Lord Nelson; on which the elegant pen of the late Lord Orford might have equally bestowed the compliment applied by him to the *Eagle* of the same fair artist,

" *Non me Praxiteles fecit, at Anna Damer.*"

The second plate is intended to represent young Nelson's attack and discomfiture of a Polar Bear; a remarkable instance of that fearlessness which ever marked his character.—The four following plates, which are scarcely more than large vignettes, are found in pages 19. 25*. 26. 31. and represent the four memorable sea-fights of this energetic Commander. We will allow that these are neatly executed, but they produce a sensation rather pleasing than impressively striking, from a want of all that boldness and sublimity of effect which should seize the eye and harrow up the soul of the contemplator.

We are next presented with a sketch of the memorable council held on board the Victory, previously to the action off Trafalgar. The sublimity of this subject, considered under all its varied and important relations,—a subject so conspicuously epic,—demands from the powers of the painter a superiority of genius, and of highly cultivated talents: but for these we here look in vain. Perhaps few painters adequate to it have been produced in England. The compositions required by historic art admit none of that mediocrity of conception, which is too often concealed under the specious garb of false colours.

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* The representation of the action off St Vincent's is strangely mingled with the details of the battle of Copenhagen.

The decisive battle of Trafalgar was not less propitious to the glory, nor perhaps to the safety of Britain, than the fight at Salamis to the renown and the repose of Attica. When that action had proved fatal to the Persian invaders, whose superior fleets were vanquished by the intrepidity and valour of the Greeks *, Minerva and the Muses, followed by Science and the Sister Arts, reascended the Acropolis; the statues of the deliverers of Greece arose in majestic solid brass; Pentelic marbles leaped into form under the influence of the creative chisel; and stately Athens eclipsed even her former glory. If we have imitated, nay surpassed, that memorable common-wealth in arms, why are we found *unnecessarily* trifling with those arts in which it excelled; and which are so important to the dignity of civilization, and to those attributes which become a nation decidedly distinguished in all other branches of human culture?

We proceed to the next plate, representing 'Lord Nelson's funeral procession by water from Greenwich Hospital to White-Hall, Jan. 8, 1806;' an imitation of a tinted drawing by Mr. Turner. It will not be essentially necessary for us to point out to the acute observer, that the mode in which this solemn subject is treated is very injudicious; that it portrays rather the tawdry festivity of a Lord Mayor's show, or the hoity-toity indecorous assemblage of laughing spectators at the contention for Doggett's coat and badge; and that, in fact, in point of conception, it wants every merit which the history was capable of conveying, to suitably impress the mind of the sympathizing spectator.

Plate 8th. 'Funeral Procession of Lord Viscount Nelson.'—Fitness and variety constitute the primary associations of every well defined composition, through each work of creative art: but these words are usually misunderstood, or are disregarded in painting, (we allude to colours;) the vulgar idea goes no farther than the appearance of a gaudy jumble of crudities, met in yellows, reds, blues, &c. neglecting the harmonious effect observable in the prism, the use of which experimental proof it is the skilful painter's province to exhibit, in every manner that may be most suitable to the subject on his canvas.—In this representation, the funeral car makes the central and most conspicuous object. While we cannot praise the whole of its rm, which is indeed a despicable production, we must re due merit to the fitness of the ornaments introduced in the corative parts of the canopy, which are skilfully conceived, id well adapted to the occasion. They are taken from the ips of Cenotaphs that enshrined the bodies of the dead at igan Rome; of which examples many fragmented parts still main;—and these ornaments were specifically applied to ose particular purposes, never mistakenly introduced for or- iments called grotesque, or the fantastic. The propriety of eir usage among the antients is decidedly illustrated by the ness of the emblems, and the happy variety in their forms. ieir angular, and sometimes elliptic external contours denote : instability of our lives, with the incidental changes in all indane affairs; and these cenotaphics on the fascias are ierally sunken into a panel, containing a flower, most com- nly the honey-suckle, as emblematical of transitory vanity. hen, however, we view such ornaments placed indiscri- :iately on the façades of a Bank, or in any other inap- :able situation, they no longer please; while they evince distortion of all judgment in the composer, who, lost to :ry sense of fitness, looks for variety only in the delirium of tempered dream.

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* It is singular that these two celebrated battles should have occurred in the same month, and on the same day but one of that month, at the distance of 2285 years!

"*Non qui Sidonio contendere callidus ostro*
Nescit Aquinatem potantia vellera fucum,
Certius accipiet damnum, propiusve medullis,
Quàm qui non poterit vero distinguere falsum." HOR.

The last plate delineates the 'Ceremony of Interment.' This resentation of the splendid and mournful *finale*, considered ı performance of art, has little merit: but it possesses in- :st, as commemorating the last honours bestowed by a teful country on the remains of one of her most illustrious oes.

;or the advancement of the arts above the usual productions, which only mediocrity seems to have been attained, we must k to the establishment of a National Museum, on a liberal l extensive scale: into which it is essential that not only stu- its and professors, but the public at large, should enter without ett, hindrance, or molestation," and without any expence; for the student to make servile copies,—which pernicious ctice is an abuse of time, and produces those insufficient fessors called mannerists,—but to contemplate the best mplars; to compare and to trace the mind and principles of se who raised the standard of excellence; and to embody whole of the important instruction thus gained in an original performance. Through the want of this essential aid and stimulus, the public loses the opportunity of forming correct judgments, the artist wanders in darkness, though little is expected yet less is produced, dulness and mediocrity supersede the higher attainments, the shadow is embraced for the substance, and all is deemed right that gives currency to commercial advantages.

We say nothing of the outline plates at the end of this volume, which are merely keys to paintings and engravings that we have not seen; and of the biographical part, it may suffice to observe that it is a neat and concise compilation, sufficient for the purpose of illustration which it was here designed to fulfil.

Art. XIII. *An Enquiry into the Principles of Civil and Military Subordination.* By John Macdiarmid, Esq. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1806.

It is the purport of this work to submit our administrative systems to the test of original principles; and to compare them with those laws by which the human mind is governed, and human actions are determined. If this be here done less profoundly than it might have been effected in the present advanced state of our knowlege in this department, we doubt much whether the work suffers materially from this circumstance on the score of practical utility. The inquiry is pursued in four parts; the first treating of natural subordination, or that subordination which prevails among mankind in their more rude state, previously to the introduction of positive institutions: in the second are considered the effects of this species of subordination: in the third, a view is taken of the subordination which is created by positive institutions; and in the fourth, a detached branch of this artificial subordination, namely the military, is investigated. As this latter division refers to a subject which derives peculiar interest from the circumstances of the moment, we shall borrow from it a few extracts, which we shall submit to our readers as specimens of the author's sentiments and manner.

One great defect in our military system, it is here contended, respects the appointment of officers of our army:

> 'This election (Mr. M. observes) is nominally vested in the King, but virtually in the Commander in Chief, who must be supposed to be well conversant with military affairs. But unfortunately other circumstances render this provision of no avail. Although the Commander in Chief may be very well qualified to appreciate the qualifications of candidates for commissions, yet he cannot possibly

m his discriminating talents to any good account, if he can com- and no leisure to examine into the qualifications of the candidates. he British Commander in Chief, however, is necessarily immersed a mass of business which has no connection with the election of ficers: but had he no other duty but this to perform, the talents nd activity of no one man upon earth are capable of executing it to hat perfection which the good of the public service requires. No ne individual could possibly undertake to examine into the qualifica- ions of the number of officers, which the present state of the British orce requires to be continually appointed.

'But the Commander in Chief is subjected to none of these un- sinesses. Neither law nor usage calls upon him to examine into e qualifications of those on whom he bestows commissions; and nsequently no such examination ever takes place.

'Although the laws direct no enquiry to be made into the quali- ations of the candidates, were it the practice to cast lots among em, the public might sometimes have an equal chance of having perly qualified officers appointed. But by means of the tests ually employed to guide the choice of the electors, even this chance emoved; and while there are many public offices which men mur- r to see filled by ill qualified persons, no one expects a military cer, on first receiving his commission, to be competent to the ties of his station.

The Commander in Chief, as any other man would do in his situ- on, gives away the commissions to those, or the friends of those o have formed some claim on his favour. At other times he al- ws the commissions to be sold to such as are desirous and able to rchase them. That the possession of money or interest affords no obability that the owner also possesses either one description of ill and dexerity or another, we have already seen: but from the nsequences of this mode of election there are many chances against e military officers thus chosen being properly qualified. Those o have neither interest nor money, and who have to make their y in the world by their own exertions, qualify themselves for other fessions in which their talents may give them some chance of suc- ding: while those who have interest or money save themselves the our of acquiring qualifications, which they know to be altogether ecessary to their success. A selection of properly qualified per- s cannot therefore be made from among the candidates who pre- t themselves.'

Among other marvellous statements made respecting the traordinary person who at this time controuls the destinies of rope, we have heard it said that not a subaltern is employ- in his immense armed force, with whose abilities and aracter he is not accurately acquainted.—On the qualifica- ns of privates, the author thus remarks:

'The peculiar skill and dexterity requisite in the privates of an- ny is in some respects different from that of the superior officers, l perhaps of less difficult acquisition. Some prejudices, however, a very pernicious tendency, have caused the degree of skill and dexterity which is requisite in the private to be accounted much less than in reality it ought. The private must, in truth, know every part of military duty which the officer does, and must not only know it but be able to carry it into execution, otherwise the knowledge of the officer is in vain. Unless the private is as perfectly skilled in any evolution as the officer who commands it to be done, and is besides able to carry this skill into practice, the evolution cannot be skilfully performed whatever may be the abilities of the officer. The same holds good of every duty which the private may be called upon to execute. The private has also occasion for coolness, intrepidity, presence of mind, and sagacity to enable him to execute the commands of his officer with precision and effect. It is in vain that the officer is intelligent, active, and brave, if the private be stupid, tardy, and cowardly.

'But there are other circumstances which render it peculiarly expedient that the privates should be assimilated as much as possible in professional skill and dexterity to the officers. The business of warfare is, in many respects, widely different from any other business. In any private business, such for instance as particular manufactories, where a number of men must co-operate, and where consequently some must be appointed to direct, the co-operation is seldom in danger of being disorganised by the death of any of the directors. A director is seldom carried off so suddenly as that there is not sufficient time to fill up his place before the business receives any material detriment. In such cases it is not necessary that those who are directed should be acquainted with the business of direction. But in warfare, circumstances are extremely different. In the field of battle, when the exertions of the officer are peculiarly necessary, he is every moment in danger of being killed; and if, on such an event, the privates are incapable of directing themselves, all who were under the command of the slain officer must be thrown into utter confusion, and scattered before the enemy as sheep without a shepherd are before the wolf. The childish helplessness, to which privates are habituated by the usual course of military discipline, is the great cause of those terrible headlong routs, in which so many more men perish than while the action is most warmly maintained.'

Mr. Macdiarmid next exposes, in very forcible terms, the old methods of recruiting. Some of the absurd and mischievous practices here censured have been corrected, while others still continue to disgrace our internal policy. With regard to Military Instruction, it is here very justly and truly stated that

'Unfortunately the laws and usages of Great Britain are not less defective in regard to the instruction than the election of our land forces. The officers, on whose instruction the efficacy of military subordination requires particular care to be bestowed, are left to pick up a little professional knowledge in the best way they can. The adjutant is, indeed, commissioned to teach them how to carry their swords, when to step out, how to station and deport themselves in the wheelings, with some other things of the same sort which are necessary to prevent them from exciting the risibility of the bye-standers. Yet so negligently is their instruction in even these trifles managed, that after twelvemonths spent in the army, an officer is often no great proficient in them. As to the mechanism and use of the various manœuvres, with the other mechanical parts of military discipline, it is accounted praise-worthy if an officer has acquired a considerable proficiency in them after several years spent in the army.

'With regard to the higher parts of military duty, those on which the warlike success of nations more particularly depends, there is absolutely not even an attempt at instruction. Are there any steps taken to render our officers conversant with the means of practising or counteracting the stratagems of war, or even with the topography of the countries in which they may be employed; Yet if the officers are ignorant of these circumstances, how is it possible that an army can act with proper effect against the enemy?

'From this unaccountable negligence in the professional instruction of British officers, it is not until after a long course of personal observation, usually termed experience, that an officer at length acquires a considerable share of that professional skill and dexterity, which he ought to have possessed when he received his commission. So very scanty, and at the same time so very incorrect, is the information which he picks up in this manner, that unless he has been in several battles, he is not supposed to have any idea of the business of actual warfare; and even general officers, who have made an excellent figure in the business of the parade, are proverbially inefficient when sent to encounter the enemy. Nothing can be a more cutting satire on the course of military instruction, than that an officer should still be ignorant of the most essential duties of his station, after having been actually placed in it for the better part of a life time. This may excite the ridicule of our enemies; but it ought to excite in us the sincerest affliction, and the most gloomy apprehension, since the State must always calculate upon losing many battles, until these great children are beat into some knowledge of their duty.

'Were our enemies equally careless of the instruction of their officers, this might afford us at least some negative consolation. But, although in general far behind us in civil policy, yet in military affairs, to which they have eagerly applied their attention, they have for the most part greatly surpassed us in improvements. The instruction of their officers is an object on which the French bestow the most unremitting attention. Besides assiduously attending to the business of the public parade, the officers have a private drill of their own, in which they not only perfect themselves in the mechanical part of their duties, but also discuss the various stratagems and chances of war. To render them masters of the topography of the countries in which they may be employed, a circumstance so essentially necessary to success, no pains are spared. Topographical maps, with local surveys and descriptions of all the French frontiers and the adjacent countries, are provided; and the Depôt de la Guerre at Paris furnishes a ready supply of every species of military information. By such arts do our enemies overthrow antient empires, while the bravest nation in the universe is made to tremble on its own shores from the miserable inefficiency of its army.'

On this interesting topic, Mr. M. adds his opinion that little or no improvement can be expected from the plans pursued in our recent Military Schools.

Chusing to be rigidly systematic, and treating of his subject on general grounds, the author uses the term *election* where only that of *appointment* is applicable, according to our institutions.

In prosecuting these inquiries, the penetration, the patient investigation, and the powers of analysis, which Mr. Macdiarmid displays, appear to considerable advantage; and we are of opinion that his labours deserve the notice of those who are in situations of authority and influence, since they may derive from them useful hints and practical suggestions.—If he appears to be a stranger to some celebrated systems, respecting the branch of knowlege by the application of which he proposes to reform our institutions, he seems to be by no means ignorant of the conclusions which these theories meant to establish, nor of the facts on which they have been founded; and if he has not shewn himself an adept in metaphysics, his pages throughout are characterized by a liberal spirit, by manly sentiments, and by an ardent and enlightened patriotism.

Art. XIV. *The Anatomy of the Human Ear, illustrated by a Series of Engravings of the natural Size*; with a Treatise on the Diseases of that Organ, the Causes of Deafness, and their proper Treatment. By J. C. Saunders, Surgeon of the London Dispensatory for Diseases of the Eye and the Ear. Folio. 1l. 5s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1806.

The organ of hearing has not obtained, either from the anatomist or the pathologist, that attention which the intricacy of its structure and the importance of its functions deserve. Although the several parts of which it is composed have been occasionally described with considerable minuteness, yet the descriptions are generally obscure, or the works which contain them are difficult of access; so that the young practitioner, who wishes for information on the subject, finds his progress impeded by almost insurmountable difficulties. These obstacles the volume before us must, in a material degree, tend to remove.

Mr. Saunders's work is arranged in four chapters; in the first three of which, the anatomy of the ear is described, and in the last we have some remarks on its diseases. He divides the complicated mechanism of which the ear consists, into three parts; the external, by which the air is received and conveyed to the seat of sensation; the internal, which forms

mmediate seat of sensation; and the middle, which con-
the two former together, and carries the impulse of the air
the one to the other.—Of the first three chapters, which
ist merely of anatomical description, we shall not attempt
analysis. The account of the several parts appears to be
ect, and as perspicuous as so intricate a subject can be
le; while the accompanying figures are numerous, and
l executed. As we do not meet with any thing which can
aid to be new, either as to the anatomy or the physiology of
ear, the merit of this part consists in its correctness; on
ich point it is intitled to much commendation.

hapter IV. on the diseases of the ear, occupies nearly two-
ds of the whole volume, and will by many persons be
med the most interesting part. Our great ignorance on
subject is generally admitted and lamented; and the ob-
les to the acquisition of information respecting it are, as
author remarks, almost insuperable. 'Nature has placed
greater part of the Ear in a situation absolutely beyond the
h of examination in the living body, and as its diseases are
ly if ever mortal, morbid Ears are seldom dissected in the
d. Such observations as are related have mostly been made
subjects that have casually fallen into the hands of the dis-
tor, and the history of the cases is unknown.' These im-
iments seem to have prevented us from attempting to ac-
re that little knowlege which is within our reach: the dis-
es of the ear have been almost entirely overlooked by the
ular practitioners; and its morbid anatomy has seldom been
object of attention with the anatomist. In this state of
ertainty, we feel the more grateful to Mr. Saunders; who
not only directed our attention to this object, but has been
to make some important advances in it.

Ir. S. commences with the diseases of the *meatus externus*;
he particularly describes an herpetic eruption of these parts,
which the integuments are thickened, and a fœtid ichorous
harge is produced. The disease is cured by alterative mer-
ial medicines taken internally, together with the external ap-
ation of mercurial lotions and ointments. After having noticed
e less frequent and less important complaints of the *meatus*
rnus, the author proceeds to the diseases of the tympanum.
e most serious complaint of this part is acute inflammation,
which may be referred that painful sensation called the ear-
e. When this advances to the state of suppuration, it re-
bles in some respects the herpetic affection just mentioned:
, as the cure must proceed on very different principles, it is
onsiderable importance to establish the diagnosis between
m. This may frequently be done by observing whether the
patient

patient has the power of expelling air through the *membrana tympani*; if this membrane be imperfect, it is nearly a certain proof that the disease is seated in the neighbouring parts: but this is not absolutely an unerring criterion: the disease may exist in the tympanum, and yet the membrane may not be ruptured; while, on the other hand, the membrane may be ruptured, but, owing to the inflammation having extended to the Eustachian tube and closed it up, the patient will not be able to force out the air. When the nature of the disease is ascertained, the cure of it, in the early stages, is to be attempted by the employment of the most powerful antiphlogistic plan, while all stimulants are to be carefully avoided. Unfortunately, however, the opposite system is too frequently practised, and the most acrid substances are employed. After some time, they indeed appear to produce relief:—not by causing a resolution of the inflammation, but by bringing on the suppurative process; a highly dangerous state, which frequently ends in the loss of some part that is essential to the functions of the organ. When this puriform discharge from the tympanum has taken place, it has been a question among practitioners, whether it be more advisable to leave the disease to the operations of nature, or to endeavour to check it by the interference of art. Mr. Saunders argues strenuously in favour of the latter opinion, and, we think, with much propriety. The evils that are supposed to arise from stopping the effusion are merely hypothetical; whereas the most serious injury to the structure of the parts is occasionally induced by permitting the discharge to continue without interruption.

The diseases of the internal part of the ear are much more obscure in their cause than those of the exterior, and lie so far beyond the reach of assistance that, even were their nature accurately ascertained, it is probable that they would in general be irremediable. As the author remarks, they may consist 'in a want of sensibility in the nerve, some alteration in the structure of the membranes on which the nerve is expanded, or change in the properties of that fluid which is contained in the membranes, and is the immediate agent in impressing the sentient extremities of the nerve.' The diseases of this part of the ear have been classed together under the title of nervous; a term which has been used in a vague sense, to denote all those cases in which no visible defect could be perceived. It may be applied in a more appropriate manner to signify those diseases, the seat of which is in the nerve, or the parts containing the nerve. The symptoms of this species of deafness are very variable: but in general they consist in the perception of different kinds of noises in the head. This state of hearing has been referred to a defect in the power of the nerve itself: the author was led to conclude that it was rather the parts rounding the nerve, than the nerve itself, which were dis- ed, by observing that a similar species of deafness was oc- ionally present in syphilitic affections of the throat; and t the operation of mercury, in removing the primary dis- e, also relieved the deafness. Guided by this analogy, Mr. unders resolved to try how far what is usually called nervous afness might be relieved by a similar plan of treatment; and some cases, which were not of long standing, he found his pothesis justified by very considerable success. He enjoined rigid diet, gave active cathartics, and alterative doses of lomel, for some weeks; and from the result of his experience, : feels himself authorised to conclude that recent cases of rvous deafness may be relieved by a strict antiphlogistic re- men, conjoined with those medicines which are the most apted for promoting absorption. This suggestion we con- ler as being highly important, and we hope that it will be nfirmed by the experience of other practitioners.

ONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1807.

NATURAL HISTORY.

t 15. *A short History of Reptiles*, (extracted from Works of credit,) designed as an Introduction to the Study of that Branch f Natural History, and as a Pocket Companion to those vho visit Museums. 12mo. pp. 55. sewed. Darton and Harvey.

BRIEF account of the crustaceous animals is also here annexed to that of the reptiles: but the whole is a very imperfect and ultory compilation, and, as a scientific manual, more calculated bewilder than to guide. Some of the detached passages may, ertheless, afford both entertainment and instruction; and we tainly have been *amused* with the grave assertion that *butterflies, inated by toads, will fly down their throats*. Indian, English, and nćan names are strangely jumbled, and form a *rattle*, in their ; though not, we apprehend, of that *fascinating* power which compel the devoted shillings to fly into the pockets of the ter.

EDUCATION.

t. 16. *A Summary of parental and filial Duties*; or an interest- ng Description of what Parents and Children owe to each other; nculcating also the most valuable Requisites for a liberal Educa- ion. Extracted from the Works of the Sieur de Charron.

By J Taylor, Head Master of the Academy, Dronfield. 12mo. pp. 100. 2s. Longman and Co.

A collection of sensible instructions and remarks, which merit the regard both of the parent and the child, as being calculated to contribute to the improvement of each. It was well said by the Latin Poet, *Dos est magna Parentum Virtus.*—Happy is it, indeed, that, in the clashing vicissitudes of human life, worthy and useful men have arisen from worthless and useless parents; while, to the grief of many virtuous minds, vicious and wicked descendants have sprung from most honourable ancestry: yet it is true that the mistakes and follies of those to whom the nurture of youth is committed, even of such as are on the whole truly respectable, leave ill impressions which are not easily worn out, and have been productive of great and lasting evils; and that those young persons possess great advantage, whose parents or governors present in their own conduct an example of rectitude and virtue. The tendency of the present publication is to assist both parties; and on the whole it is calculated to effect this design.

Art. 17. *Twenty-four Lectures on the Italian Language*, by Mr. Galignani: in which the Principles, Harmony, and Beauties of that Language are, by an original Method, simplified and adapted to the meanest Capacity, and the Scholar enabled to attain, with *Ease and Facility*, a competent knowledge of the Language without the Help of any Master. In this Second Edition, the Work is enlarged one-third, by numberless Additions and Improvements, by the Editor, Antonio Montucei, Sanese, LL.D. Italian Master. 8vo. pp. 340. 7s. Boards. Boosey. 1806.

Art. 18. *Italian Extracts*, or a Supplement to Galignani's Lectures; consisting of an extensive Selection from the best classic and modern Italian Authors, preceded by a copious Vocabulary, with familiar Phrases and Dialogues. By the Editor, Antonio Montucci, Sanese, LL. D. 8vo. pp. 376. 7s. Boards. Boosey. 1806.

For several reasons, we forbear to dwell minutely on the merits of these publications.—Of Galignani's original work, we have already spoken at some length in our XXIst Vol. N.S. p. 87. and the present Editor's ample title pages display the nature and extent of his additions. Besides, as we labour under the disqualification of *tramontane* birth, we wish not to be taxed by some future compiler of an Italian Grammar and Extracts, with *ushering to the public, trash of the most barbarous and despicable kind.* On the other hand, we should be grieved to offend a *polite* Tuscan writer, who talks at his ease of 'the often detested Veneroni's Dialogues', and of 'the very coarse packing-cloth of Signor Mossolini.' In this dilemma, we must observe, generally, that the Sienese Dr. manifests no ordinary diligence in his labours, and a very intimate acquaintance with the genius and minutiæ of his native language; that the alphabetical list of the irregular verbs is by far the most complete that has fallen under our notice; and that, with the exception of heavy and impure English, we may pass the same verdict on this brace of volumes, which the Dr.

pronounces on one of his own performances:—"*Iltrattato è molto erudito. L'autore ne ha studiato la materia in eccellenti scrittori.*" We have likewise to applaud the disinterested spirit of a teacher, who shews how a language may be easily acquired by the meanest capacity without his personal intervention. Health, then, and long life *all' Eccel.^{mo} Sig.^{re} Sig.^{re} Prõne. Cõl.mo. Il Sig.^{re} Dott. Antonio Montucci!*

Art. 19. *English Grammar epitomised,* for the Use of Schools. 2d Edition. 12mo. 1s. 3d. Button.

Art. 20. *English Exercises,* for the Use of Schools. 4th Edition. 12mo. pp. 120. 1s. 3d. Button. 1806.

Art. 21. *Introductory Lessons in Astronomy, and other Branches of Natural Philosophy,* for the Use of Schools. 2d Edition. 12mo. pp. 74. 1s. 3d. Button.

These publications are compiled by the same author, and, as the titles express, are introductory works for the use of young persons. The English Grammar is a tolerably good abridgment, in which the rules are brief, and well condensed: the English Exercises contain a great variety of lessons for the improvement of young persons in Spelling and Syntax; and the book on Astronomy, which likewise contains lessons on Geography, is, as far as it goes, useful. These works furnish a compendium of the sciences of which they treat; and for those persons whose stations in life do not require much information, they may be sufficient without having recourse to others.

Art. 22. *Entertaining Instructions,* in a Series of familiar Dialogues between a Parent and his Children: interspersed with original Fables well adapted to the Capacities of Youth. 12mo. pp. 150. 3s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

'The author of this work having frequently observed that fables are read by children merely as a temporary amusement, without their paying the smallest regard to the application; and, judging that a previous Dialogue, somewhat analagous to the Fable, might impress it deeper on the mind of the young reader than by merely running through a succession of them which are no sooner read than forgotten, has interspersed a few Dialogues and Fables in such a manner as, from their novelty, may arrest the attention.' This idea is commendable, and the volume is well calculated to fulfil the intention of the author: the subjects are treated in a pleasing and judicious manner; and they are successfully adapted for imparting instruction and amusement to young minds. We have heard the name of a Lady of Distinction mentioned as the writer of these dialogues: but we do not feel at liberty to make it public.

Art. 23. *The Second Part of the Pronouncing Spelling Book:* containing Exercises upon Sound, and short Rules for Pronunciation, &c. By Mrs. Wilmshurst, of Maldon, Essex. 12mo. 1s. Conder.

The object of this book is to teach young persons, by means of definite sounds given to the letters, the proper mode of pronouncing the English language. To fix standard rules for the pronunciation of a language which is derived from so many sources, and which is subject to so many variations as ours, is certainly an impossibility. Mrs. Wilmshurst differs from Mr. Walker; others will likewise differ in opinion from her; and perhaps no two persons, who carefully consider the subject, and trust to their own ear, will agree in every respect. Mrs. W., however, has taken pains in adapting the exercises to the comprehension of young children; and for this as well as other tracts written for their improvement, she deserves well of the public.

MILITARY *and* NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 24. *Observations and Instructions for the Use of the Commissioned, the Junior, and other Officers of the Royal Navy,* on all the material Points of professional Duty. Including also Forms of general and particular Orders for the better Government and Discipline of His Majesty's Ships: together with a Variety of new and useful Tables; among which are, General Tables for Watching Ships' Companies in all Rates;—for shewing the Stations of the different Officers at Quarters;—for the general Appropriation of Men at Quarters, in Ships of every Class;—for Furling Sails;—Mooring and Unmooring;—Making and Shortening Sail;—Tacking Ship, &c. &c. With an Appendix, being a complete Set of Forms for Watch, Station, and Quarter Bills for Ships of War. By a Captain in the Royal Navy. 8vo. pp. 78. Steel.

Practical knowlege and experience have evidently dictated this work; which, as appears from the long title-page, contains very numerous and necessary instructions for naval officers. The author proposes it for the use of juniors, and to assist the recollection of others who may have been long absent from duty: for which objects we think that it is well calculated. It may also be advantageously consulted by the most experienced even who are in constant service, as the remarks of the author display good sense and a propriety of judgment, added to knowlege of the subject.

It must be admitted that the writer is well founded in maintaining the utility of one uniform system of orders and arrangements for all ships of war, since at present scarcely any two are regulated precisely alike. He will not, however, in all probability, experience equal concurrence in his proposition for an inspection of a ship by the respective classes of officers, previously to going to sea; because, though his reasons for such a survey are not without foundation and force, the service is already so much harassed by inquisitiorial measures, that officers will not readily assent to a suggestion for an addition to them.

Art. 25. *Letter to Admiral Lord Keith,* &c. &c. &c. With Advice to the Captains who were under his Command, on the Subject of a Dutch Frigate and Five Sail of Dutch Indiamen, found at Anchor, on his Lordship's Arrival at Simond's Bay, June 1795. 8vo. 1s. J. J. Stockdale. 1806.

Art. 26. *Answer to a Letter addressed to Lord Keith,* &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. J. J. Stockdale.

The object of this letter to Lord Keith is to implore his Lordship's interference. for the payment of prize money (or consideration-money) for the vessels mentioned in the title, and which has never yet been distributed. We understand that this is matter of fact, and that blame is certainly due *somewhere*, but not to Lord Keith: who, equally with every seaman in the squadron, has hitherto been deprived of this remuneration. Whether the Admiral's remonstrances are likely to avail, with those who cause so injurious a delay, we cannot pronounce: but undoubtedly the service has reason for complaint.

It is stated by the author that a frigate and five Indiamen were found by Lord Keith lying at the Cape: but the fact is, that three of these latter came in *after* the Admiral's arrival, and were taken into our possession by the Rattlesnake sloop of war. No difference, however, in his argument arises from this little inaccuracy.

The *Answerer* accuses the letter-writer, in abusive terms, of a false statement at the outset, which vitiates all future claim to attention, in mentioning a *frigate* as being taken with the Indiamen. We speak on good information, however, when we confirm the first assertion. There *was* a Dutch frigate, commanded by Captain Dacres, lying in Simond's Bay; which Lord Keith afterward permitted to depart, and proceed to Batavia, for reasons not publicly known.—The style of this pamphlet is extremely reprehensible, and the motives of the writer are not easily assignable. Lord Keith, we are sure, will not thank him for his *vindication*: none was required; or, if it were, none such as this could be acceptable; which, after all its scurrility, leaves the matter of complaint just where it was.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 27. *Reply to Dr. James Carmichael Smyth*, containing Remarks on his Letter to Mr. Wilberforce, and a farther Account of the Discovery of the Power of Mineral Acids in a State of Gas to destroy Contagion. By John Johnstone, M.D. &c. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Mawman.

We have already noticed the former stages of this controversy, in which Dr. Johnstone urged the claim of his father to the discovery of the acid fumigation, and Dr. Smyth endeavoured to vindicate his right to the parliamentary reward that was voted to him *. This last publication has again called forth the pen of Dr. Johnstone, which he employs with the same talents as before, and with much greater severity.—On taking a general review of the dispute, we are decidedly of opinion that the elder Dr. Johnstone was the discoverer of the acid fumigation; and it appears clearly from the work before us, that he was in the habit of using it, on all such occasions as those in which it was afterward recommended by Dr. Smyth. On the other hand, it seems equally clear that Dr. Smyth was ignorant of the method of applying acids in the gaseous state, until after not only Dr. Johnstone but also M. Guyton had published on the subject;

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* M. R. Vol. xlii. p. 211.; and Vol. xlvii. p. 436.

and that he did nothing more than employ a different kind of acid, which we are much inclined to regard as less proper for the purpose. —Under these circumstances, we do not hesitate to consider Dr. Smyth's parliamentary grant as unmerited; and though we cannot but regret that the argument should have taken so personal a turn, yet the contemptuous manner in which Dr. Smyth treated his antagonist in some measure excuses the severity of the latter. We hope that the discussion will now be set at rest: and that Dr. Smyth will be satisfied with his 5000l. leaving the merit of the discovery to Dr. Johnstone and M. Guyton.

Art. 28. *A Proposal for destroying the Fire and Choak-Damps of Coal-mines;* and their Production explained on the Principles of modern Chemistry: addressed to the Owners and Agents of Coal-works, &c. By Thomas Trotter, M.D., late Physician to His Majesty's Fleet, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co.

We are sorry to say that, in the course of our critical labours, we have seldom met with a work which, under the garb of science, presented more ignorance or false reasoning than are here displayed. Fatal accidents frequently occur in coal mines, in consequence of the noxious gases which abound in them, and which are of two kinds, viz. what has been called the fire damp, principally composed of hydrogenous gas, and the choak-damp, consisting of carbonic acid. After much philosophic parade, Dr. T. proposes that the former should be destroyed by fumigating the mines with the oxy-muriatic acid gas; and that the latter should be absorbed by throwing water into them. We imagine that every person, who is in the least degree acquainted with collieries, must know that neither of these remedies would be adequate to the proposed object, and that the employment of them would render the mines absolutely useless.

Art. 29. *A Manual of Anatomy and Physiology,* reduced as much as possible to a tabular Form, for the Purpose of facilitating to Students the Acquisition of these Sciences. By Thomas Luxmore, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. &c. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Highley.

This volume contains a great quantity of information, compressed into a small compass; and, as a manual of *anatomy,* it is fairly intitled to commendation: but the *physiological* part seems to be extremely defective.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 30. *Sermons for the Use of Families,* Vol. II. By Edmund Butcher. 8vo. pp. 435. 7s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

We noticed with approbation the first volume of these discourses, which was published in 1798.* A second edition has now been printed with this additional volume, in which some corrections have been made, and a sermon on 'Religious Education' has been substituted for the original Hymns that were subjoined to each discourse in the first impression.—The contents of Volume II. are in no respect inferior to those of its predecessor. We trace in it the same liberal and enlightened views of Christianity, the same attention to the actual state of society in the choice and manner of treating the subjects introduced, the same union of piety and taste, and the same honourable notions of God and his Providence. The Discourses are truly practical, and in all of them are passages which speak to the feelings and situations of real life.—Mr. Butcher seems well aware that the mysteries of religion, on which questions have been started which no powers of the human intellect can decide, and by the discussion of which, few, if *any*, dispositions of the human heart have been improved, can never be the essential and most important parts of the religion of Jesus.—His style is animated, and often figurative, but it is never obscure nor difficult of comprehension. If his thoughts are not greatly distinguished by novelty, they are appropriate and judicious; and his appeal to the understanding and conscience of his reader is frequently solemn and impressive.

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* See Rev. Vol. xxx. N. S. p. 110.

A short extract will enable our readers to form some idea of Mr. B.'s language and manner.—In the 4th Sermon, the character of the Apostle Paul is thus summed up:

'The character of Paul has some shades, but they are faint and few. It is his extreme humility that leads him to speak of himself as he frequently does, "I am the least of the Apostles, and am not fit to be called an apostle, because I persecuted the Church of God. I was before a persecutor, and blasphemer, and injurious:" and in this view he stiled himself "the chief of sinners." It is evident, however, that he was not an immoral character, for he elsewhere tells us, that as touching the righteousness which is of the law he was blameless. Paul of Tarsus had no littleness of soul, no insipidity and apathy about him. His understanding was sound, and his heart at all times ardently upright. When he was convinced of the truth of Christianity, he renounced, without hesitation, every contrary sentiment. Every prospect of honour and advantage from Judaism was given up; every prejudice was sacrificed; and reproach and persecution encountered rather than make shipwreck of faith and a good conscience. To make others as happy as himself he travelled from country to country. Dangers and sufferings seem only to have invigorated his zeal, expanded his heart, and made him more and more desirous of turning his fellow creatures *from darkness to light, and from the power of Satan unto God.* He had a most lively and glowing sense of the divine love in making him instrumental in the spread of that cause which he once persecuted. His earnest desire to diffuse the Gospel, to make known the Grace of Christ Jesus, and to extend to as many regions as possible the benefits of redemption, are parts of his character supereminently conspicuous. I shall close this imperfect sketch of it with his own words to Timothy. "Thou hast fully known my doctrine, manner of life, faith, long-suffering, charity, patience, persecutions and afflictions, which came upon me at Antioch, at Iconium, at Lystra, what conflicts I endured, but out of them all the Lord delivered me. Now I am ready to be offered, and the time of my departure is at hand. I have fought a good fight, I have finished my course, I have kept the faith; henceforth there is laid up for me a crown of righteousness which the Lord, the righteous judge, shall give me at that day, and not to me only but to all "them that love his appearing." Glorious Apostle! behold him like a buffeted mariner in view of the port. He looks back upon the stormy ocean, and rejoices that his conflict with the waves is almost over. Like a faithful worn-out soldier, he anticipates the hour of his dismission, and looks with honest exultation to the wreath of glory which is preparing for him. Christians! if you wish to be satisfied what a good conscience and the hopes of the gospel can do for you, survey this venerable figure; it is Paul of Tarsus examining his heart and life, glorying in the consciousness of having done his duty, and longing to depart and be with the Lord.'

Practical utility is the express aim of this preacher, and it appears to us that his labours are calculated to advance that laudable intention.

Art. 31. *A Vindication of certain Passages in the Common English Version of the New Testament,* addressed to Granville Sharp, Esq. Author of the "Remarks on the Uses of the Definitive Article in the Greek Text of the New Testament." By the Rev. Calvin Winstanley, A.M. 12mo. 2s. Longman and Co.

Had not the short lived controversy on the uses of the Greek Definitive Article, so indiscreetly provoked by Mr. Sharp, been completely put to rest, the assistance of Mr. Winstanley, who comes properly armed with erudition and critical acumen, would have been hailed as a most auspicious event by Mr. Sharp's opponents: but as Mr. S.'s "Remarks" have been proved to be unfounded and fallacious, (see M.R. Vol. 44 N.S. p. 401) to fight over the field again with Mr. W. would only be *to slay the slain*, and to make the parade of a long triumph for a victory which required very little skill and effort to obtain. He must therefore excuse us from discussing his 'Vindication,' and have the goodness to accept from us a general commendation instead of a minute examination of his work, which would unquestionably prove more creditable to his reputation as a scholar. By a multitude of examples, he shews that 'in the use of the article and the copulative, the Greek writers were governed not so much by any arbitrary rules, as by a regard to perspicuity and distinctness; and that, accordingly, there are some cases, in which the article cannot be repeated after the copulative, whether the nouns relate to the same thing or person, or to different things or persons; there are others in which it must be repeated; and there are others again, in which the repetition depends on the pleasure of the writer.'

Mr. W. does not address himself to the unlearned, and cautiously guards his orthodoxy, while he protests against Mr. Sharp's new trinitarian versions.

Art. 32. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Rochester,* in the Year 1806, and published at their Request. By John Law, D.D. Archdeacon of Rochester. 4to. 1s. Payne.

It is recommended to the clergy, in this temperate address, to ad-

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the scriptural mode of preaching, which exalts the grace of
ithout vilifying good works. Dr. Law particularly adverts to
wrence's Bampton Lecture Sermons, (reviewed in a preced-
cle, page 269.) and coincides with that writer in opinion that
ıpiler of the Articles never meant to assert 'such a depravity
ıan nature, as precludes the working of any thing that is

;3. *Letters on Election.* By Richard Wright, Wisbeach.
8vo. 1s. Vidler.

inian Election and Reprobation are strongly opposed by this
who contends that the term *Sovereignty of God* (on which the
:es for the orthodox faith erect this article of their belief)
the Sovereignty of infinite love; and that, by representing the
ıty as partially attached to some of his creatures, while he
r retaliates on others, we degrade his righteousness below that
he requires of his saints. Mr. Wright's position is that the
Jehovah, in electing a part of mankind, had in view the hap-
of all; that one end is pursued in all the divine dispensations;
ıt by imagining the contrary, and placing one part of man-
nder an eternal decree of salvation and the other part under an
decree of damnation, we are reduced to the necessity of ad-
; the existence of two opposite principles in the Deity, or
ıeism.

subsequent remarks on those passages of Scripture which are
d in favour of the doctrine of a partial Election, on the
peculiarity, and on the use of the words *Elect* and *Chosen*, in
T., merit attention: but for these we must refer the reader to
ıphlet, which manifests great plainness and perspicuity.
W's arguments against partial Election include a defence of
:trine of Universal Restoration.

ı. ΣΥΜΒΟΛΟΝ ΤΡΙΣΑΓΙΟΝ, *or the Geometrical Analogy of the*
olic Doctrine of Triunity consonant to human Reason and Com-
:nsion; typically demonstrated and exemplified by the na-
indivisible Triunity of certain simultaneous Sounds. With
ers from Dr. Herschell, and the late Rev. William Jones of
and, and published at his Request and Desire. By H.
ngton, M.D. 4to. 3s. Robinson.

ould be deemed indecorous not to preserve our gravity while
ng the most awful of subjects: but, when a writer endeavours
:rate the mysterious doctrine of the Trinity by the properties
ght angled triangle, or by the notes of the musical scale, we
selves so irresistably moved to indulge in something the re-
f seriousness, that we dare not meddle with Dr. Harington's
gical Geometry; and we must leave it to those Reviewers, if
n be found, who have never stepped over the threshold of the
of Democritus.

;. 'ΑΙΡΕΣΕΩΝ ΑΝΑΣΤΑΣΙΣ: *or a New Way of deciding Old*
roversies. By Basanistes. 8vo. pp. 194. 4s. stitched.
ıson.

writer has not practised that reserve which we imposed on ourselves in the foregoing article, but, pleading the Horatian adage[*], has prosecuted a solemn inquiry in a strain of sarcastic wit. He pretends that the most orthodox believers are not yet orthodox enough; and that, instead of a Trinity, they ought to receive a Quaternity by admitting the Jewish Lawgiver into the Godhead. Under an affected zeal against Unitarianism, he adduces the reasons which are employed in support of the Trinitarian Hypothesis: but he so manages the cause that the *reductio ad absurdum* stares us in the face at every period of his argument. Basanistes is not, like Dr. Harington, a lover of triangles, but prefers Quadrangles, as 'more comfortable to move in,' and comments on their properties as containing analogical proofs of his doctrine of Quaternity. His "broad grins" continue through the whole pamphlet; and if by his *ironing* (as Mrs. Slipslop calls it) he can smooth the ruggedness of controversy, he will accomplish that which graver writers have not effected: but we do not so far flatter him.

Art. 36. *A Charge to the Clergy at the primary Visitation in the Month of August,* 1806, of the late Right Rev. Father in God Samuel, by Divine Permission, Lord Bishop of St. Asaph. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

In the first part of this charge, the late learned Prelate appears in the character of an expounder of the law, explaining certain clauses of the "Curates' Act," and insisting that no curate should be permitted to officiate without a licence from the Bishop. He tells 'incumbents, that they are not to dismiss their curates with as little ceremony as they might turn away their menial servant, at a month's warning or with a month's wages.'—He next adverts to the "Marriage Act"; notices the ignorance which prevails, even among the Clergy, respecting it, particularly as to the Publication of Banns; and advises them, in order to obtain that knowlege of Statute Law which relates to their ecclesiastical duty, to purchase "The Clergyman's Assistant," a work published by the University of Oxford.

When the Bishop proceeds from the Rules to the Doctrines of the Church, he adverts to the controversy respecting the complexion of the Articles; which, he contends, are so neutralized between Arminianism and Calvinism, 'that there is nothing to hinder the Arminian and the highest Superlapsarian Calvinist from walking together in the Church of England as friends and brothers.' We regard this as a very bold assertion. Reprobation makes no appearance either in the Articles or the Liturgy; and some of the prayers are directly in the teeth of the Superlapsarian scheme—Towards the conclusion, the Clergy are advised not to dispute on controverted points, but to lay down the doctrine categorically; of which practice, the R. R. writer affords them a very striking example.

Art. 37. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Durham,* at the Ordinary Visitation of that Diocese, in the Year 1806. By Shute, Bishop of Durham. 4to. 1s 6d. Rivingtons.

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[*] —— *ridentem dicere verum*
Quid vetat?

While the foregoing Prelate commands and threatens, the present Bishop mildly argues with his Clergy. Styling himself 'their affectionate friend and brother,' he urges them to study the advancement of spiritual religion; to consider the distinguishing features of Popery as adverse to the religion of Christ depicted in the N. T; and to endeavour, since the state liberally tolerates the members of her communion among us, to prevent our own people from recurring to her dangerous errors. 'Be zealous,' says he, 'in the discharge of your duty, but be charitable.' It is affecting to hear this venerable Prelate reminding his Clergy, that his age forbids him to look forwards with any confidence to another visitation; and exhorting them, as in the near view of an eternal state, to adhere to the principles of our Reformed Church.

Art. 38. *An Essay towards a connected Elucidation of the Prophetical Parts of the Apocalypse,* compiled with the Help of some original Communications. By Stephen Morell, Little Baddow, Essex. 8vo. pp. 113. 3s. sewed. Conder.

On a sea covered with wrecks, Mr. Morell ventures to launch his little bark; though evidently with no more knowlege of the navigation than was possessed by the unfortunate mariners who have preceded him. He has laid down no meridian, he has taken no soundings, and his chart is a bold sketch of the imagination.

As we look on such attempts more with pity than displeasure, we shall refrain from the task of minute examination, and shall merely ask what solid reason has Mr. M. for asserting that,

'*The first Seal* comprehends the period of the family of Vespasian.

'*The second Seal,* the connected succession of Trajan, whether by blood or adoption.

'*The third Seal,* the reign of Septimus Severus, and the connected succession from him.

'*The fourth Seal* includes the interval between the last connected succession, and that which we are next to consider. This period is remarkable for little connected succession, much competition and anarchy.

'*The fifth Seal* describes the reigns of Dioclesian and his associates. This is a period which has been always much distinguished, for it has been called the æra of Dioclesian, or the æra of martyrs.

'*The sixth Seal* comprehends the house of Constantine.

'*The seventh Seal* relates to the house of Valentinian, and to Theodosius.'

All this is *gratis dictum.* We could extract more of the same kind, but one sample is sufficient.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 39. *The British Martial;* or an Anthology of English Epigrams: being the largest Collection ever published. With some Originals. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 10s. Boards. R. Phillips.

"Some old and some new,
Some false and some true,

Some witty and some that are dull, Sir;
Some rude and some civil,
Some with thoughts that are evil,
Of such matter these volumes are full, Sir."

Thank you, friend, for helping us out in describing this collection. For an assemblage of *bon-mots*, or of epigrams, nearly the same character will apply to all as well as to one, as far as our memory serves. The present is certainly *copious*, and contains many effusions that will amuse by their sprightliness or their acuteness but, as it seems to be intended by its handsome form for a library book, it should have been free from all those pruriencies which remind us of the truth of one of its own admonitions:

' *To a Young Wit.*

' Nature has done her part; do thou but thine;
Learning and sense let decency refine.
For vain applause transgress not virtue's rules,—
A witty sinner is the worst of fools.'

Art. 40. *Resolves, Divine, Moral and Political, of Owen Felltham.* A new Edition, revised and amended, with a short Account of the Author and his Writings, by James Cumming, Esq. F.S.A. 8vo. pp. 404. 9s. Boards. Hatchard. 1806.

The Resolves of Owen Felltham consist of short Essays 'on the most important and interesting subjects of human life and conduct,' and contain a rich store of wisdom, collected in a long course of study and attentive observation. The views which they give of the matters treated are numerous, and such as cannot fail to improve the mind; and the remarks are so various and valuable, that whoever carefully attends to them will be materially assisted in conducting himself through the world. As they relate to miscellaneous topics, the volume may be left in a room for occasional perusal, and most readers with cultivated minds will find something adapted to their taste. Its morality is sound, and its piety is warm; its religious doctrines are scriptural, and its political principles are loyal; it bears the marks of a strong mind and an inquisitive genius; and we are surprized to find it containing sentiments which are thought to belong exclusively to more modern publications The style, although somewhat obsolete, is very expressive; the references to scripture are just and pleasing; and the allusions to historical subjects are happy, elegant, and classical

Owen Felltham was son of Mr. Thomas Felltham of Suffolk, and died about the year 1677. His Resolves were first published about 1627, when their intrinsic merits were soon discovered; and such was the popularity of the work, that the *twelfth edition* was printed in the year 1709. Since that time, no new impression has appeared until the present; the reason of which intermission seems to have been its antiquated style together with the many elegant works of the same nature which were about that period given to the public.

In order to render the present edition better adapted for general use, and more acceptable to modern readers, Mr. Cumming has taken

taken the liberty of occasionally altering the language to suit the taste of the present day: for this and some other improvements, he deserves commendation; and had he taken farther liberties, the work would have been still more acceptable.

Art. 41. *A Letter addressed to the Freemen of the Town and Port of Sandwich*, respecting the Proceedings and Resolutions of the Ramsgate Committee, dated at their Town-Hall, Oct. 28, 1806, relative to an intended Application to Parliament for the Purpose of reducing the Tolls of Sandwich Bridge. 2d Edition, with considerable Additions. By William Pettman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Law, &c

The Ramsgate Committee having proposed that the *tolls* or *duties* paid at Sandwich Bridge should be *suspended* or *abridged*, for the purpose of making and maintaining an intended new turnpike road from that town to Ramsgate, Mr. Pettman takes up his pen to reprobate this measure. These tolls, after the deduction of a small annuity appropriated to a charitable foundation, belong to the Corporation of Sandwich; and Mr. P. loudly declaims against the attempt to take away any of this *private* proverty which belongs to a *public* body. The amount of the tolls of this bridge, which the rage for travelling, and the great resort to the shores of the Isle of Thanet, have probably much increased, is not here stated, though on this amount the reasonableness of the above mentioned proposition must depend. We are told that the Corporation of Sandwich offered to pay out of the bridge tolls 200l. per annum towards the intended road; and by this proposition they admit that they now receive abundantly more from the tolls than is adequate to the sustentation of the bridge, and to answer all the original intentions of the Act. The Ramsgate Committee proposed an accommodation to the community, which (we can vouch) is certainly wanted, more especially in some parts of the road: but if their views were other than liberal and public spirited, they are open to Mr. P.'s animadversions. If the case comes before Parliament, its merits will no doubt be fairly discussed.

Art. 42. *A Letter to Samuel Whitbread, Esq.* M.P. containing Observations on the Distresses peculiar to the Poor of Spitalfields, arising from their Local Situation. By William Hale. 8vo. 1s. Williams and Smith.

It is here stated that the parish of Christ Church, Middlesex, commonly known by the name of Spitalfields, (which, previously to the reign of James II. was only a desolate hamlet of St. Dunstan, Stepney,) became stocked with poor French protestants, who established there the silk manufactory, after they had been driven from their own country by the despotic tyranny of Louis XIV; that, from this period, it has been crouded with poor inhabitants, who have gained permanent settlements in the parish; that 'here the mechanics of every trade reside, who work for their employers in the city:—here dwell the carters, porters, and labourers, with thousands who are engaged in the most servile employments, down to the mendicants, the lame, and the blind:—here, where extreme poverty is daily witnessed of poverty in 1800, when he was himself one of the overse pays a merited tribute to the benevolent exertions of Mr. H. ton in behalf of the parish; who assisted in obtaining a te aid from Government, and obviated the effects of the tar office by immediate advances from his own pocket.—The lo ships, under which this parish groans, are enumerated for the of exciting parliamentary attention; and the author incline opinion that its boundaries ought to be virtually extended, a its richer neighbours should be forced to participate in the su its numerous poor; who, though they perform the work of parishes, unfortunately reside only in this one.

This subject certainly requires attention and remedy, a Hale as evidently deserves thanks for the exertion and the which he has devoted to it.

Art. 43. *An Address to the Visitors of the Incorporated S Doctors in Civil and Canon Law.* Parts I. and II. By N Highmore, LL. and M.D. 8vo. 4s. Cadell and 1806.

It seems that this gentleman, who had entered into Deaco ders, and had graduated as a physician, was desirous of being ad into a third profession, that of a Civilian. When holy ord sought, it is never asked what has been the candidate's previo fession; nor will our own Universities of the North refuse the fying rank of M.D. to any man because he may have exerci other calling.—The door is less open to admission into the lear ciety of Doctors in Civil and Canon Law: holy orders disqu person for this Corporation;—a rule which it is the object present work strenuously to oppose.—It may be said of matt this nature, that it imports society less what the rules are, tha they should be known and fixed; and we cannot regard the r tions of so small a body, however exclusive, as of very gener ment. On the subject of the right of the clergy to hold secu which the most fastidious scrutiny might incline to suggest, that in the University, from whence I received my degree, my devotion to the study of the civil and canon law has been as pure, as chaste, and as immaculate as could be that of the learned Judges and Advocates to whom his Majesty's Royal Charter was, in consideration of such their professed devotion, at first granted,)—thus much premised I am ready to admit that I have in other Universities addicted myself to other studies and to other sciences; That I have studied theology and the sacred languages of the East, under Michaëlis, and Walck, and Koppe, in the University of Gottingen; that, in the same University, I have "tasted," though not "drunk deep," from the profaner springs of Grecian and of Roman literature, under the erudite classic, philologist, and antiquary, Heyne; and, in the course of a residence of two years, I have there applied myself to other branches of study connected with morals and with humanity. Nor, My Lords, under the same sanction, and confiding in the same authorities, do I hesitate to avow to your Lordships that I have also studied medicine. That I have studied the same, both as an art and as a science, in the Schools of London, and in the Universities of Leyden and of Edinburgh. As a trade, My Lords, I have never, and no where studied it; nor, as a trade, have I yet learned to practise it.'

That Dr. H. is *aliquid in omnibus* will not be denied: but whether he is *nihil in toto* we have not the means of judging. If he has been refused admission into one profession, he is still master of two between which he may chuse.

Art. 44. *Considerations on the Alliance between Christianity and Commerce*, applied to the present State of this Country. 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies.

An ingenious and elegant tract, which encourages the most cheering hopes. We recommend the perusal of it to the lovers of honourable dealing, and to the friends of religion and virtue. The alliance between pure religion and the interests of commerce, and the means which the latter furnishes for the propagation of the former, are ideas of which much good use may be made, and they are not ill pursued in these pages.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 45. *An Exemplar of Divine Worship, as exhibited to St. John in the Apocalypse*, stated in a Discourse on Rev. iv. 1. By the Rev. R.B. Nickolls, LL.B. Rector of Stoney Stanton, and Dean of Middleham, in Yorkshire. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

In the several symbols contained in the Apocalyptic vision, this preacher discovers 'the nature of the Christian dispensation, the offices of the Holy Trinity, the conversion of nations to the Christian faith, and the worship of the Trinity as it should ever be maintained by the Orthodox Church to the end of the world.' We cannot say that Dean Nickolls has adduced any strong arguments in favour of the interpretation of St. John's vision in this passage. We are at a loss to conceive by what logic such inferences are obtained from such premises; and if these conclusions be correctly drawn, we are sorry to own that some divines enjoy a road to truth from which we are altogether excluded.

Art. 46. Preached before the University of Cambridge, June 29, 1806, being Commencement Sunday. By Edward Maltby, D.D. 4to. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

When we remark that this discourse reminded us of the nervous morality which distinguishes some of the papers of the Rambler, we mean not to intimate that the Divine has been indebted to the Essayist, but that he expostulates with equal dignity and energy. Both resist the dangerous notions that some individuals are born to be illustrious without labour; and both endeavour to impress on the rising generation, that it is essential to acquire early habits of industry and virtue, in order to ensure future success and honour. On John ix. 4. Dr. Maltby has constructed an address which is remarkably adapted to the occasion; and the lessons which he inculcates merit the peculiar attention of those who constituted, or are supposed to have constituted, the chief part of his audience.

It has been a general subject of lamentation, that young men are not sufficiently aware of the importance of duly improving the commencement of life, and of the intimate connection which subsists between the blossoms of youth and the fruits of maturer years. They require to be reminded that patience and perseverance are indispensably necessary to the attainment of eminence, and that uncultivated talents can be a blessing neither to the possessor nor to mankind.

'In an early age (says Dr. M.) the foundations of knowlege must be laid;' and in order to reconcile the young to the toil which such attainment imposes, he farther observes that 'so little is a life of occupation incompatible with pleasure, that pure and perman enjoyment cannot be secured without it.——"If labour," remar Jortin, "be the child of sin, it is the parent of virtue."—The preach thus energetically addresses his young hearers:

'Whether you are destined to fill the commanding station of Legislators, to assert the rights of your fellow-citizens by a just administration of the laws, to soften the pangs of disease by a skilful application of medicine, or whether it shall be your peculiar province to spread abroad the treasures of religious knowlege; who does not perceive what incalculable benefits may flow from a rational disposition of your time,—from an honest and vigorous exercise of your faculties? Upon the wise, or indiscreet, employment of the precious hours now within your controul, it must depend whether society at large shall acknowlege with gratitude and triumph the advantages derived from your patriotism, your eloquence, your professional skill, your ardent, but well regulated zeal; or whether it shall deplore the mischief produced by your remissness, your incapacity, or your vices.'

Turning to the sons of the noble and the affluent, he bids them recollect that riches 'are not bestowed for the gratification of a groveling appetite, of fantastic caprice, or of enervating indolence, but for the gracious and salutary purpose of making many among God's creatures happy.'

From these short specimens, it may be inferred that the preacher has nobly discharged his duty; and on ingenuous minds, such forcible eloquence as that of Dr. Maltby will not be thrown away.

Art. 47. *Future Punishments of endless Duration*—Preached at the Rev. James Knight's Meeting House, Collyer's Rents, Southwark, at a Monthly Association of Ministers and Churches, December 11, 1806. By Robert Winter. 8vo. 1s. Jordan and Co.

Different persons make different conclusions from the same premises. We recollect to have read, some years ago, a sermon *against* the eternity of Hell-torments, from the same text (2 Thess. i. 9.) on which this preacher has chosen to maintain them; and if we are to be guided by the strict meaning of the word *destruction* *, the idea of *torment* is excluded. Before, however, we boast of 'the decisive testimony of scripture,' founded on particular words, or rather the translation of them, are we not to consider the principles of rational and enlightened criticism? If the words "they shall go into everlasting punishment," without adverting to the nature of the Deity and the nature of man, must be understood to signify never ending or eternal misery in the fullest sense of the terms, then "this is my body" may signify, according to the Papists, the absolute transubstantiation of the sacramental elements into the very body and blood of Christ; and they are equally justified with this preacher, in assuming with a high tone 'the absolutely decisive testimony of scripture.'

Mr. Winter, we have heard, is an amiable man: but when he speaks of the eternal misery of sinners 'reflecting an awful lustre on the unsullied justice of God,' we could almost persuade ourselves that we were perusing the speech of a Spanish Inquisitor at an *auto de fé*, instead of the discourse of a humane protestant divine. We are sorry that he could be induced to lend his respectable talents to the support of so horrible a tenet; in the defence of which, he has only repeated the most common place arguments, which every scholar knows to be fallacious. Punishment is a measure, not the ultimate end, of human government; and to represent the Almighty, "who willeth not that any should perish", as instituting eternal punishments as an end, is in fact to degrade his government below the imperfect institutions of men. Scripture, judiciously interpreted, gives no countenance, in our opinion, to such a doctrine; which we must decidedly conceive to be at variance with every notion that a devout Christian can entertain of the moral perfections of God.

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* Mr. Winter tells us that the word in the original is the same as that which is translated *torment*, 1 John iv. 18: but St. Paul's word is not κολασιν, but ολεθρον, which even Beza translates *exitium*.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In consequence of some remarks which we made in our account of Mr. Hoare's *Inquiry into the Present State of the Arts*, (see our last Number) with reference to the omission of any mention of the Paintings of the late Mr. Barry, we have received a letter from Mr. Hoare; in which he states that he was 'personally honoured with the regard' of that eminent artist, 'and highly esteemed his superior talents,' but that he refrained from specifying his works in consistency with the plan (as expressed in the preface) of not introducing *living artists*; and that Mr. B. was not only alive when the Inquiry was written, but that 'his death, on the *26th February*, was subsequent to its publication by nearly a fortnight.'

We are glad to receive Mr. Hoare's testimony to the merits of the ill requited Barry, and his declaration that our 'remarks would, in his opinion, have been highly justified by inattention to a man of genius and virtue,' were it not in his power to answer them by the above plea, of which we could scarcely be aware. We must observe, however, that the words in Mr. Hoare's preface are, "omitting, in *general*, any mention of the names of living professors, for reasons sufficiently obvious:" that an exception might properly have been made in the instance of Barry, whose labours afforded so remarkable an exemplification of Mr. Hoare's argument; and that, though the reasons for omitting the names of living artists may be obvious, it is equally evident that, on such a plan, Mr. Hoare's Inquiry displays not the *present* state of the arts: it may shew the *recent* or *modern* state, but not the *actually existing* state.

If we admit Mr. Hoare's account of the relation between the time of Barry's death and the publication of the *Inquiry*, so far as that on the latter point he must be the best informed, we believe that he is not *perfectly* accurate in the former event; which, we understand, took place on the *22d* February, Mr. Barry being on that very day 65 years old. It is remarkable that the same peculiar occurrence, of dying on the aniversary of his birth, happened also to one of the most celebrated artists of former times, viz. to Raphael Santio, da Urbino, in the year 1520, at the early age of 37.

An Old Friend may rest assured that principles and measures, not men and parties, will ever be the first objects of our regard, amid all the changes and contentions of these eventful times. Places and Pensions never have been the idols of the Monthly Review; nor ever will, while the stream of its sentiments continues to be directed in its original channel.

The hint of a *Constant Reader* has been recommended to attention, in the proper department.

☞ In the Number for February, p. 145 l. 25. for 'Mr. Carn,' r. Mr. *Cam*.—P. 169. l. 22. for 'maximum again,' r. *minimum again*.—P. 184. l. 3. for 'variety,' r. *vanity*.—P. 199. note *, for xxvii. r. xxxvii.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1807.

Art. I. *A Voyage to Cochin China*, in the Years 1792 and 1793: containing a general View of the valuable Productions and the political Importance of this flourishing Kingdom; and also of such European Settlements as were visited on the Voyage: with Sketches of the Manners, Character, and Condition of their several Inhabitants. To which is annexed an Account of a Journey, made in the Years 1801 and 1802, to the Residence of the Chief of the Booshuana Nation, being the remotest Point in the Interior of Southern Africa, to which Europeans have hitherto penetrated. The Facts and Descriptions taken from a Manuscript Journal. With a Chart of the Route. By John Barrow, Esq., F.R.S., Author of "Travels in Southern Africa," and "Travels in China." Illustrated and embellished with several Engravings by Medland, coloured after the original Drawings by Mr. Alexander and Mr. Daniel. 4to. pp. 450 and 21 Plates. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1806.

One of the most amusing and best informed travellers of modern times here again presents himself before the public, sure of being favourably received *. That he feels, indeed, very confident of indulgent treatment is fairly to be inferred from the high price that he has fixed on a volume, which is, in fact, the least important and the *most made up* of his productions: since the chief part of its new and curious matter, viz. that which relates to Cochin China, might all have been comprized within the limits of an octavo.—Concerning the price of the work, however, we mean not to be illiberally churlish. Mr. Barrow is earning a very proper and just reward of his labours, when he lays the rich under contribution; and none but the rich will pay three guineas and a half for a volume that may be read in a few afternoons, and then will repose on the shelf. The learned need it not, for whose sake, because they are rarely affluent, it is principally to be desired that books should be cheap. Yet a large reading tribe must be excluded from the gratification of perusal; and if there be a hardship in this exclusion, it is like those which they are continually experiencing, in being deprived of luxuries intended for and suited to the wealthy and extravagant. Cheaper productions will in time make their appearance, from authors who have a reputation to establish, or who travel unaccompanied by a draftsman.' '

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* For Mr. B.'s *Travels in China*, see Rev. Vol. xlvii. N. S. p. 337. For his *Travels in Africa*, see Vols. xxxv. and xlv.

If Mr. Barrow's presumption on public favour, then, extended no farther than in requiring a little money from those who are well able to pay it, and who need not pay it if they are unwilling, all would be well; and if as *poor* critics we envied the wealth flowing in on him, still as *just* critics we ought not to question the propriety of his conduct:—but this confidence in public favour seems to have absolved the author from the trouble of soliciting and the care of preserving it. He writes evidently more at his ease, but not with increased grace. The rapid sale of his works has released him from scrupulous caution against inaccuracy, and, consequently, from the concomitant danger of stiffness and formality: yet this liberation seems not to have endowed his style with flexibility and elegance. In the present work, he does not appear to us as an author possessing the habits of composition. In sentiment, too, he takes what may be called liberties with the reader: but an author ought to be very ceremonious and punctilious; and he should apologize if he makes an aukward interruption, or an inconvenient digression. When the voyager is proceeding with a fair wind towards the splendid shores of Janeiro or the lofty hills of Teneriffe, he ought not to arrest his course by a philippic in bad taste against the French, against Dr. Darwin, or against Dr. Price; since the connection of such invectives with Cochin China is neither pleasantly felt nor easily discerned. A great writer, indeed, began with tar-water, and ended with the Trinity: but, though the dexterity and easiness of the transition may be admired, no one, we believe, ever recommended or adopted the plan. The propriety and fitness of certain discussions and sentiments depend very much on the occasion and season of their introduction. Things that are good in the abstract may be ill-timed: declamations against French tyranny, finesse, and peculation, were formerly useful, and proofs of the same bad qualities will be always applicable, while we are fighting against them: but, if we have not the proof, the declamation is rather out of season; and it oppresses a subject which is already too much burthened. With regard to Dr. Darwin, he has been exposed to public censure and ridicule in a mode much more successful than that of Mr. Barrow; and when we are again disposed to laugh at his extravagant fancies, we shall rather turn to the burlesque pages of the Poetry of the Anti Jacobin, than to solemn refutations in the Travels to Cochin China.—Dr. Price was during his life-time attacked by a celebrated writer, not for his calculations, but for his political preachments. If he be really wrong in his calculations, we should be very glad to know where, and in what degree. Mr. Barrow (p. 11.) says that he 'is inaccurate in many of his calculations:' this may be: but the author should have condescended, in a small note, to have enlightened the public and the gentle reader: he has advanced the accusation and applied the sarcasm; he ought not to withhold the proof. Writers exist who, on this subject of calculation, are willing and competent to vindicate Dr. Price: able, perhaps, to retaliate and avenge. We remark now and then among authors a certain careless and dashing style of censure and crimination which is not to be tolerated, and which is indeed not very moral. It is easy to construct acrimonious and contemptuous sentences, but it ought not to be very safe; and it is not necessary to write a quarto to refute them. Such petty sarcasms and sneers, even though they should be merited by the subject of them, if not called forth by the occasion, ought surely to be omitted: they are neither dignified nor elegant: they gratify malice alone: they add nothing to the reputation of the author; and though he might be grievously distressed for materials, still a page or two, out of four hundred, could well have been spared.

We have now nearly cleansed our bosom of "the perilous stuff" of animadversion; and with composure and alacrity we are ready to attend the author on his voyage. As his former *Travels in China*, in company with the British Embassy, gave no narrative of his route to that Empire, the present volume supplies this defect, and relates the details concerning the subordinate kingdom of Cochin China.

In the island of Madeira, at which place the squadron first touched, Mr. B. visited a Franciscan convent; in which was a chamber of skulls, arranged along the walls and ceiling:

> 'The old monk (says Mr B) who attended as shew-man was very careful to impress us with the idea that they were all relics of holy men who had died on the island; but I suspect they must occasionally have robbed the church-yard of a few lay-brethren, and perhaps now and then of a heretic, (as strangers are interred in their burying ground,) in order to accumulate such a prodigious number which, on a rough computation, I should suppose to amount to at least three thousand. The skull of one of the holy brotherhood was pointed out as having a lock-jaw, which occasioned his death; and, from the garrulity of our attendant, I have no doubt we might have heard the history of many more equally important, which, though thrown away upon us who had no taste for craniology, would in all probability have been highly interesting to Doctor Gall, the famous lecturer on skulls in Vienna. On taking leave we deposited our

mite on the altar, as charity to the convent, which seems to be the principal object in view of collecting and exhibiting this *memento mori* of the monastic and mendicant order of St. Francis.'

The inhabitants of Madeira are stated to be a meagre, filthy, and itchy race, dressed in gloomy suits of black; and, which must astonish and shock an English observer, the fair daughters of the isle 'step aside with perfect composure to the creeks and corners of the streets, and, like Madame Rambouillet, "pluck their roses" in open day, and in full view of every passenger.' Against such a custom, every Londoner would cry *shame:* not adverting to the indelicacy of the same practice with our robusteous males, and to the sight of which his wife and daughters are continually exposed.

Of Mr. Barrow's national covetousness we had received hints before we read his book; and indeed he scarcely meets with a convenient bay, or a pretty island, which he does not long to transfer to the English. From Madeira, we derive every advantage that a commercial nation can wish to obtain. We bring thence its wines, and we carry thither our manufactures; and, which is the great point, the nation is not burthened with any establishment attached to it: yet the author says, 'for the mere improvement of the island and the condition of the people, the English *ought* to be masters.' He then proceeds to survey the landing places and defences; not perhaps entirely without the hope that our government may, in some future period, send out a force for the generous purpose of *improving* the island and the condition of the people. We cannot but think that this avidity for foreign territory proceeds not from an enlightened and enlarged policy, but from mere commercial selfishness. When great foreign possessions are supported, the merchants are benefited, but the bulk of the people is oppressed with the expence of maintenance. The patriotic traders at Lloyd's care not how many settlements like Buenos Ayres are taken into our possession: Government, that is the people, pays for the expedition and the garrison: but the cent. per cent. profits are gathered by a few individuals. We must, indeed, possess some ports and inlets for our commerce, but it is the nation's interest to have few establishments that largely drain us of men and money. Our veteran regiments may be stationed inactive in the southern hemisphere, while France is striking a blow against the very existence of English power.

Before we quit Madeira, we must note a peculiarity which we do not recollect to have before seen remarked; viz, that a Portuguese beggar, when about to solicit charity, apparels himself in his *best* cloaths.

The island of Teneriffe, which is next visited, does not violently excite the author's cupidity: it has, however, some *charms*; it may be defended by a small but *well disciplined* garrison; and in the possible prospect of some future invasion of it, Mr. B. surveys the landing places, &c. and suggests the mode of attack. He rails frequently against the French, and once, if we recollect rightly, against French commercial agents: but, though we readily grant that his views are highly honourable and patriotic, yet, whenever we attended him on his surveys of the bays, landing-places, and batteries of neutral powers, we could never divest ourselves of the notion of a *commercial agent*.—Some pages are devoted to the narration of an *unsuccessful* attempt to ascend the Peak of Teneriffe: but the travellers were consoled for their disappointment by *a ball in the evening*.—Mr. Barrow states the population of Teneriffe at about one hundred thousand. We doubt, therefore, whether, *a small but well disciplined* garrison would be sufficient to keep the place secure, should we be unwise enough to take it.—The air is salubrious, and population is on the increase.

From Teneriffe, the squadron sailed to St. Jago. When the ship arrived within the limits of the Trade Winds, the smoothness of the sea and the equable motion of the vessel tempted the passengers to the pastime of fishing; and they caught sharks and dolphins. The first were taken without pity, since they were considered as the tyrants and tygers of the deep: the latter were hooked and hauled on deck, not for the delicacy of their flesh nor for their bad qualities, but that the anglers might enjoy 'the delight of observing the exquisitely beautiful but evanescent tints of colour, that pass in succession over the surface of their bodies, in the agonies of dying.'—Mr. B.'s account of the sword-fish is curious:

> 'There are instances, still more extraordinary than the salmon-leap of the astonishing power which the muscles of fishes are capable of exerting; so very extraordinary indeed, that were they not authenticated in such a manner as not to leave the possibility of a doubt, they would certainly be considered as the inventions of voyagers. Ships' sides of thick oak plank have been completely perforated by the snout of the sword-fish, not of the common species the *Xiphias gladius*, of which we struck one at the entrance of Porta Praya bay, but another or at least a variety, of greater dimensions, being sometimes from twenty to thirty feet in length, and distinguished by a large spotted back fin, and by the rounded extremity of the snout or boney process. *Van Schouten* of *Horne*, in his very entertaining voyage round the world, about the beginning of the seventeenth century, states that "a great fish or a sea monster, having a horn like a common elephant's tooth, not hollow but full, struck the ship with such great strength that it entered into three planks of the ship, two o

> green and one of oaken wood, and into a rib, where it turned upward to their great good fortune." In the year 1801, a Danish ship came into the Cape of Good Hope, in consequence of springing a leak off the Brazil coast. On examination it was found that she had been struck by a sword-fish, the snout of which had penetrated the bottom, where it still remained, having snapt close to the plank on the exterior side of the vessel. In the same year a small English ship came into Table bay, having received in the Southern Atlantic a stroke from a sword-fish, which buried part of the boney snout so deep in the stern post as to impede the action of the rudder. These two facts consist with my own knowledge, which, together with the piece of plank from the bottom of an East Indiaman, now in the British Museum, transfixed by the sword of this fish, may satisfy the doubts of the most sceptical on a subject which was known to the ancients perhaps more than two thousand years ago, as it is mentioned by Pliny to be a fact indisputably established long before his time.'

In his schemes of English aggrandizement, we think differently from Mr. B.: but we sympathize sincerely with his truly English Indignation, when he describes the ship *The Resolution* of the immortal Cook transformed into a smuggling whaler, under the colours of France. The *Resolution*, as Mr. B. remarks, should have been preserved for a national monument, as Queen Elizabeth preserved the ship in which Drake sailed round the world.

The next object visited was Rio de Janeiro; and the animated description of the author, aided by his coloured plates, has so far prevailed over our sedentary indolence, that we have ventured to wish to visit its beauties. The written description of Mr. B., however, goes beyond the sketches of his companion; and if it has not given us clear conceptions, it has at least warmed us: but as we cannot exactly separate the feeling from the conception, we forbear to quote the description, since it may be inefficacious with other readers. We rather extract what is sufficiently intelligible: viz. Mr. B.'s description of the annoyance with which winged and crawling venomous animals infested the voyagers:

> 'We had little reason to complain of the climate of Rio during our stay. Though the sun was just on the southern tropic, and consequently nearly vertical, during our residence here, yet we seldom suffered any inconvenience from heat, or were prevented from taking our usual quantity of exercise. The general temperature of the air in the day was from 76° to 84 of Fahrenheit. The nights were by far the most disagreeable. If we attempted to walk in the open air, the bats or the fire flies *(Lampyrus)* were every moment threatening to dart against our faces; if we remained in the house, scorpions, and centipedes, and scolopendras were constantly crawling over the floor; and a disagreeable, disgusting,

but perfectly harmless insect, a species of cricket (*Gryllus Gryllotalpa*), as constantly skipped about the plates and into the glasses during supper. But of all the torments I ever experienced, in any part of the world, none in my opinion can be put in comparison with those produced by the stings of the musquitoes of Rio de Janeiro. I have felt the venom of their little pointed beaks in many parts of the world, but never suffered from its virulence any thing like the degree of pain which their puncture occasioned at this place; nor could the exquisite torment which we suffered be owing to any extraordinary degree of irritability in the habit of body at the time, because the whole party, without a single exception, laboured under the same severity of pain. The eyes, the lips, the forehead, and the cheeks of every individual who slept on shore were inflamed and swollen in such a manner as completely to disfigure the face. Those who had taken the precaution to furnish themselves with curtains of net-work, though they might not suffer in an equal degree with the rest, were not, however, entirely protected. If a single musquito, by any accident, found itself within the net, the perpetual humming noise with which it assailed the face, and the constant expectation of feeling its sting, were nearly as teasing and as preventive of sleep to those who lay enclosed in net-work as to those who were exposed to their open attack.

'The swarms of these insects and other kinds of vermin may be attributed rather to the extreme filthiness of the people than to the heat of the climate. The ground floors of the houses are rarely swept: they serve as repositories for fire wood, for lumber, and for the lodgings of their numerous slaves. The same want of cleanliness is visible in their dress and in their persons. Few, if any, are free from a certain cutaneous disorder, which is supposed in our country to be the joint effect of poverty of food and filth; many have confirmed leprosy; and the elephantiasis is by no means uncommon. A great part of their diet consists of fish, fruit, and vegetables, with the never-failing dish of *farinha de pao*, or flour of the maniota root; all their substantial food, whatever it may be, is first dipped in oil or grease, and then rolled in this flour and made up into little balls in the palm of the hand. Milk, butter, and cheese, are rarely used. With the utmost difficulty we procured a little of the first for our tea, and it was miserably bad. Their beef is lean and very indifferent, and mutton is scarcely to be had at any rate. Fowls and turkies are abundant, and tolerably good; and the market is well supplied with a great variety of very excellent fish. The bread which is made of wheaten flour, the produce of the southern provinces, is exceedingly good. The fruits in general are not excelled in any part of the world.'

In Rio, the travellers *discovered*, after considerable search, two booksellers' shops, but their contents were absolutely of no value; yet books might here be manufactured which would be interesting and valuable, since ample materials are to be found in the manners of the people and in natural history. The Monks and Friars, however, who have time and opportunity, consume neither their days nor their nights in *lean and wasteful* learning: their occupation consists of *tittle-tattle*, interference with the domestic concerns of private citizens, and the collection and distribution of scandal. They learn curious and piquant anecdotes by officiating as confessors, and are not, according to Mr. B.'s representation, very honourably retentive of information so obtained.

The ladies of Rio have been accused of easy gallantry: but Mr. B. consigns two or three pages to the vindication of their chastity, and of the playful custom of tossing flowers at strangers. It is a vindication, however, which might well have been omitted, since it is by no means satisfactory.

Chapter V. contains general observations on the Brazils.—What New Holland is to us now, Brazil was formerly to the Portuguese: thither they sent all persons accused of witchcraft and heresy, Mohammedans, and Jews. The latter were glad to escape tyranny and persecution in Europe, and, fleeing from oppression, they found riches in South America. Their first object was to gain the favour of the natives; and they were readily permitted to put into the earth both seeds and the cuttings of plants. The sugar cane was raised in Brazil, from cuttings brought from Madeira; it was first cultivated and used as a medicine, then as a luxury, and in a short time it was exported to Europe in such abundance that the court of Lisbon *really began to think* that a colony might be useful to the mother country, even if it did not produce gold and diamonds.

The question of the Slave Trade is now, we hope, decided for ever, and to the eternal honour of the British Parliament of 1807. It is superfluous, then, to say any more on that subject: but it would be unfair not to notice that the present volume contains several arguments and representations, all urging the abolition.

It is worth the while, on the grounds of laudable curiosity, to know what Brazil produces and is capable of producing, even if we do not attempt to annex it to the British Empire:

'The fertile and extensive plains (says Mr. B.) of South America abound with innumerable herds of horses and horned cattle; but the richness of the soil, and its total want of culture, produce only such grasses as are too coarse, and their juices too acrid, for the sustenance of sheep. Oxen even do not thrive upon them, without the occasional use of salt; and as the exclusive privilege of importing this article, essential for the preservation both of man and beast, from the islands of Sal and Mayo, is farmed out as a monopoly of the Crown, it is necessarily sold at an extravagant price, and is frequently not to be purchased on any terms. The salt that would be required to preserve the carcase of an ox costs in general about thrice as much as the whole animal. Yet there is no want of salt on the coast of Brazil, il, if the inhabitants were permitted to manufacture it. Wher- it is made with facility, or deposited by spontaneous evapora- , it is immediately claimed as the exclusive right of the Crown; ch, however, has condescended to bestow a remarkable indul- ce to the inhabitants of certain parts of the sea-coast, by allowing m to collect, for their own use, what nature has spontaneously own in their way; but they are forbidden, in the most positive ms, to carry a single grain of it either to St. Salvador, Rio de neiro, or any of the principal governments of the Brazils. The onopoly of salt is estimated to produce to the Crown of Portugal bout 15,000*l.* a year. Thus, for the sake of realizing so pitiful a um, thousands of cattle are suffered to perish, the carcases of such s are slaughtered, for the sake of the hides only, to be thrown away, he fisheries on the coast are checked, and in a great degree rendered useless, and one great source of commerce and navigation entirely dried up. At Rio the price of a moderate sized ox is not more than twenty shillings, and in the interior only from five to ten shillings. In fact, the hide is considered as the only valuable part, and the carcase is left to the tyger or the panther, the eagle, the condor, and such other birds and beasts of prey as abound in the country. The condition of the graziers in the Brazils appears to be pretty much the same as that of the Dutch boors at the Cape of Good Hope. Rich in the possession of thousands of cattle, they are deficient in every comfort of life; without society, without clothing, and without decent habitations. They are even worse than the Dutch boors, for these can move about in their covered waggons over their barren heaths, but in the fertile and well-wooded regions of South America there are yet no roads that will admit the convenience of a wheel carriage.'

Mr. B. confirms the statement which has been frequently made, and from various quarters, that a smuggling trade to a very considerable extent is carried on between the Portuguese in Brazil and English Whalers and Americans. The latter, according to the present writer, take off the surplus produce of the colonies, and pay an annual balance of half a million in hard specie. The colonists employ this cash to purchase slaves: our manufactories, by means of the Whalers and Americans, find an entrance into Brazil; and from the Brazils they are smuggled into the Spanish settlements, by the way of the Rio de la Plata.

Considering the colonizing temperament of the author, we were not surprized to find him ogling and holding dalliance with the Brazils and the Spanish colonies: yet he properly admit that a Protestant Government would have immense difficultie to encounter, if it attempted to control the former; and tha the project of revolutionizing the latter is not only unsafe i regard to policy, but that in point of humanity, since the slav

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exceed the proprietors in a tenfold proportion, it would be nefarious and unwarrantable.

After his dissertation on the Brazils, Mr. Barrow proceeds with the narration of his voyage. The islands of Tristan da Cunha and Amsterdam are visited and described; and the description may be useful to those who next approach these islands, though to us it appeared very uninteresting. The avidity of our merchants may however be excited, when they learn that at Tristan da Cunha the largest ships can ride in safety, and can take in water with the greatest ease; and that the place may easily be made *impregnable*, requiring only a few men for its defence, &c. 'Should we, therefore, (says Mr. B.) at any future time be so unfortunate as to be excluded from the Brazils and the Cape of Good Hope, this half-way island to India would be found to possess many conveniences. Even those who may contend that our colonial territories are already sufficiently extended must at least agree that we can never have too many points of security and accommodation for our ships of war and of commerce.' Mercy, Mercy, good Mr. Barrow: these speculations and projects may be *sport to you*, but, should they be realised, to us who stay at home and must pay the cost, *they will be death.*

In the island of Amsterdam, our travellers found Thermal springs: in some, the temperature was that of boiling water, 212°; in others, which were adjacent, they angled, and caught red coloured perch from six inches to a foot in length, of a most excellent flavor; 'which, (says Mr. B.), with true epicurean want of feeling, we had the cruelty to drop living off the hook into the boiling springs, where it required just fifteen minutes to cook them in perfection.'

We cannot introduce the reader to Cochin China before we have delayed him a short time at Batavia. Of the island of Java, its productions, &c. Mr. B. has communicated several valuable particulars; and respecting the city of Batavia, its pestilence, feasting, and inhabitants, much information and many amusing anecdotes. In his narration on this subject, moreover, he does not disturb our serenity with his foible: he does not recommend, nor even does he wish, the English to attempt the conquest of Batavia. Now what is it that forbids us to attempt the conquest of Batavia? Principally, the unhealthiness of the climate, for the island is extremely productive, and the whole Navy of England might ride in the bay, secure from winds. Several remarkable instances of mortality are mentioned. In the military Hospital, the register of deaths for 62 years amounted to 78,000

persons,

ns, or 1258 annually, and the military establishment in-
's only 1500 soldiers. In 1791 the Duke of Wirtem-
, (at present his Majesty the King of Wirtemberg,) *let out*
e Dutch some of his troops, amounting to 270 men, with
officers; and in the following year 150 privates and five
cers fell victims to the climate. The mortality, no doubt,
ncreased by the intemperance of the resident Europeans,
ce of 115,000 inhabitants the annual loss is about 4000:
t then the Dutch, in proportion to their numbers, contri-
te most largely to this list of death; and Mr. B. pre-
nts, in a short table, the relative proportions of the several
eople of Batavia: thus;

	Mortality.
Dutch, half-cast and families	9 per cent.
Chinese	$3\frac{3}{5}$
Natives and Malays	$2\frac{2}{5}$
Slaves	$7\frac{4}{5}$

The mortality among European females is not nearly so great as among the males; and this fact, joined with the plain inference from the preceding table, proves that intemperance is a principal cause of the evil; or, to speak more correctly, that temperance would be a great preservative against contagion and disease: but temperance is a mere name in Batavia. Of the virtue they have indeed heard, and some of their books have ventured to praise it: but of its existence they afford no example. Addison, in one of his papers, indulges his fancy in conceiving the tribe of diseases to be concealed within the highly seasoned viands of a sumptuous table: whether the Batavian Deputy Governor, Van Weigerman, unbent to the playfulness of a similar allegory when he said that 'Batavia was an accursed country, in which he *ate poison* and *drank pestilence* at every meal,' we cannot positively determine: but Mr. B.'s account of his profuse dinner seems to decide the question in the affirmative. If it be urged that the character of a people is not to be appreciated from their occasional feasts of hospitality, and that in order to form a right judgment on this subject we ought to view them in the usual routine of a day's occupation, still the author's delineation confirms the former opinion. We cannot find room for the passages which we had here designed to quote.

Among the most useful inhabitants in Batavia, are th
Chinese, who are carpenters, gardeners, &c. but they are ver
heavily taxed by the Dutch, and in the year 1740, on unju
and foul pretences, they were inhumanly massacred.—M
B.'s description pays just tribute to the peaceable virtues a
industri

industrious habits of the Chinese; and it shews that a government, which does not aim at conquest, and is not endangered by invasion, cannot have better subjects. He also describes the Javanese and Malays, and refers the former to a Hindoo, and the latter to a Tartar origin. We must, however, leave Dutchmen, Javanese, and Malays, to pursue our voyage to Cochin China, at which place the reader does not arrive till he has passed over 240 pages of the volume.

The kingdom of Cochin China is laid down on ordinary maps: it is situated between the 18th and 10th degrees of latitude, with its eastern side bounded by the sea, and its western by a ridge of high mountains, which separate it from the kingdom of Cambodia; and two or three degrees to the north, the empire of China begins. Very little is known concerning Cochin China and the adjacent countries; and Mr. Barrow, in a tone of reproach, observes that, in the best arranged modern systems of geography, a considerable portion of modern Asia, containing twenty millions of inhabitants, is passed over with a mere dash of the pen. Its history is here commenced in the year 1774; when an insurrection, headed by three Brothers, a Merchant (Yin-yac), a Priest, and a General Officer (Long-niang), deprived Caung-shung of the throne of Cochin China. It was divided between the three, and Long-niang soon made war on the king of Tung-quin, a vassal of China, and obliged him to fly to Pekin for the purpose of demanding assistance. Kien-lung, the emperor, ordered his *Invincible* army, under the viceroy of Canton, to march and reinstate the king of Tung-quin: but the politic Long-niang (who had assumed the title of Quang-tung,) laid waste the country, and soon obliged them to retreat, from want of provisions, the army having lost by famine and the sword nearly 50,000 men. The viceroy Foo-chang-tong was obliged to negociate: but his antagonist refused to yield the title to the kingdom of Tung-quin. Foo-chang-tong, more fitted for the cabinet than the field, was reduced to employ finesse; and he represented to the emperor that his invincible army had performed most wonderful feats, but that the supposed usurper was much beloved by the Tung-quinese, had a fair title to the abdicated throne, and that it would be politic to invite him to the court of Pekin to perform the accustomed ceremonies and duties of vassalage. Instead of making his personal appearance, however, the wary Long-niang imposed on the court of Pekin, as his representative, one of his Generals. The mock king was favourably received and sent back: but Long-niang, puzzled by this unexpected issue, rewarded the faithful service of the eneral by putting him and the whole of his suite to death, order to prevent a discovery of the trick.

At the time of the insurrection, a French missionary, dran, resided at the court as tutor to the son of the king; nd from the general wreck and slaughter, he rescued the ueen, the prince, his wife, and their infant son: their rst concealment was in a wood, under the branches of a *oyal* banyan tree; and after the ardor of search had subsided, he fugitives proceeded to Sai-gong, where the prince was rowned as king under the name of Caung-shung. A large rmy, however, sent by Yin-yac the *merchant king*, comelled the royal party again to flee; and they embarked on he river of Sai-gong, and landed on a small uninhabited island n the gulph of Siam. Here the king was joined by about 200 of his adherents: but, the usurper preparing an expeition against him, Caung-shung resolved to throw himself on he protection of the king of Siam. This monarch granted an sylum to the exiled prince; and, being at war with the Birans, he accepted of his profered assistance: which, by the id of the European tactics, taught to Caung-shung by Adran, as so effectual that, in a short time, the Birmans were comelled to sue for peace. Jealousy of his talents, however, and uspicion of ambitious views, raised in Siam a party against oor Caung-shung; and he was obliged, at the head of his ithful followers in arms, to force his way out of the capital f Siam, to reimbark on some Siamese vessels and Malay roas seized in the harbour, and again to occupy his old land; which, with the guns taken from the vessels, he rtified so as to be secure equally against the king of Siam d his own subjects.

In the mean time, Adran had been visiting the southern rovinces of Cochin China; and finding the sentiments of e people hostile to the usurper, he resolved to sail for rance, and to apply to its court for effectual assistance, in -instating the king on his throne. He took with him from ondicherry the son of Caung-shung, and arrived at Paris in 787. His project was presented, and adopted; and in the ourse of a few months a treaty was signed at Versailles beween Louis XVI. and the king of Cochin China. The prinipal articles of this extraordinary Compact are:

> 'I. There shall be an offensive and defensive alliance between the ings of France and Cochinchina: they do hereby agree mutually to ford assistance to each other against all those who may make war pon either of the two contracting parties.
>
> 'II. To accomplish this purpose, there shall be put under the rders of the King of Cochinchina a squadron of twenty French ships

ships of war, of such size and force as shall be deemed sufficient for the demands of his service.

'III. Five complete European regiments, and two regiments of native colonial troops, shall be embarked without delay for Cochinchina.

'IV. His Majesty Louis XVI. shall engage to furnish, within four months, the sum of one million dollars; five hundred thousand of which shall be in specie, the remainder in salt petre, cannon, musquets and other military stores.

'V. From the moment the French troops shall have entered the dominions of the King of Cochinchina, they and their generals, both by sea and land, shall receive their orders from the King of Cochinchina. To this effect the commanding officers shall be furnished with instructions from his Catholic Majesty to obey in all things, and in all places, the will of his new ally.

'On the other hand,

'I. The King of Cochinchina, as soon as tranquillity shall be re-established in his dominions, shall engage to furnish, for fourteen ships of the line, such a quantity of stores and provisions as will enable them to put to sea without delay, on the requisition of the ambassador from the King of France; and for the better effecting this purpose, there shall be sent out from Europe a corps of officers and petty officers of the marine, to be put upon a permanent establishment in Cochinchina.

'II. His Majesty Louis XVI. shall have resident consuls on every part of the coast of Cochinchina, wherever he may think fit to place them. These consuls shall be allowed the privilege of building, or causing to be built, ships, frigates, and other vessels, without molestation, under any pretence, from the Cochin-chinese government.

'III. The ambassador of his Majesty Louis XVI. to the Court of Chinchina shall be allowed to fell such timber, in any of the forests, as may be found convenient and suitable for building ships, frigates, or other vessels.

'IV. The King of Cochinchina and the Council of State shall cede in perpetuity to his most Christian Majesty, his heirs, and successors, the port and territory of Han-san (bay of Turon and the peninsula), and the adjacent islands from *Faifo* on the south to *Hai-wen* on the north.

'V. The King of Cochinchina engages to furnish men and materials necessary for the construction of forts, bridges, high-roads, tanks, &c. as far as may be judged necessary for the protection and defence of the cessions made to his faithful ally the King of France.

'VI. In case that the natives shall at any time be unwilling to remain in the ceded territory, they will be at liberty to leave it, and will be reimbursed the value of the property they may leave upon it. The civil and criminal jurisprudence shall remain unaltered; all religious opinions shall be free; the taxes shall be collected by the French in the usual mode of the country, and the collectors shall be appointed jointly by the ambassador of France and the King of Cochinchina; but the latter shall not claim any part of those taxes, which will

properly to his most Christian Majesty for the support of
ies.
In the event of his most Christian Majesty being resolved
'ar in any part of India, it shall be allowed to the Com-
Chief of the French forces to raise a levy of 14,000 men,
shall cause to be trained in the same manner as they are in
d to be put under French discipline.
. In the event of any power whatsoever attacking the
their Cochinchinese territory, the King of Cochinchina
ish 60,000 men or more in land forces, whom he shall
tual, &c. &c.'

necessary to stop here, to point out the policy of
of France in framing this treaty; which, luckily for
ests of the East India Company, was frustrated,
the influence of the mistress of Conway, the Gover-
ondicherry, but principally by the event of the Revo-
Adran, by the court of France created Bishop and
l Plenipotentiary, proceeded to Pondicherry; and
there crossed in his purposes, as it has been said, by
ues of Madame de Vienne, yet he did not desist from
design of re-instating Caung-shung on the throne.
young prince, he proceeded to the coast of Cochin
where he learned that the king, after a miserable
ce for two years on the island, had been induced by
mstance of the two usurpers contending with each
land in his kingdom: that the people rose in his sup-
l that the royal party proceeded to Sai-gong, the works
h were immediately put into good defence. Here
e joined in 1790 by bishop Adran, and measures were
ring the year for equipping a fleet and army.
the rebel Long-niang or Quang-tung died; and Caung-
mediately commenced his operations by surprising,
, and destroying the fleet of Yin-yac the merchant king.
the spring of the following year 1793 that the British
anchored in the bay of Turon, on the east coast of
hina; and at that time, the southern part had submit-
e lawful sovereign. Mr. Barrow, however, is enabled
ue the narrative by the aid of the same information
ich most of the preceding part is derived: that is,
anuscript memoir of a Mons. Barisey, a French naval
ommanding a frigate in the service of Caung-shung.
ac did not long survive the destruction of his fleet,
in 1795. His son succeeded, who was dispossessed
pital Quin-nong in 1796 by Caung-shung. Against the
e other usurper, who kept possession of the kingdom
-quin, the Gustavus of Cochin China was preparing an
armament

armament in 1800. 'Though no authentic accounts since this period have reached England, there are grounds for believing that he has re-conquered the whole of that country.'

After due allowance is made for the usual exaggeration of a panegyrist, and for the natural exaggeration of a Frenchman, still Caung-shung must be allowed to be a great and extraordinary man. By the aid of an education which may be called European, he has risen superior to those around him; and his superiority does not consist solely in patience, in fortitude under evil, and in atchievement of victory, but by civil regulation, and by the introduction of arts, he has impelled his country towards civilization: the industry, the ingenuity, and the energy of his people are excited; and probably they will soon be enabled to assume a more elevated rank among the nations of Asia:

'From the year 1790, in which *Caung-shung* returned to Cochinchina, to 1800, he was allowed to enjoy only two years of peace, 1797 and 1798; and these two years were, in all probability, the most important of his hitherto troublesome reign Under the auspices of the bishop Adran, who in every important undertaking was his oracle, he turned his attention to the improvement of his country. He established a manufactory of saltpetre in *Fen-tan (Tsiompa* of the charts). opened roads of communication between important posts and considerable towns, and planted them on each side with trees for shade. He encouraged the cultivation of the areca nut and the betel pepper, the plantations of which had been destroyed by the army of the usurper. He held out rewards for the propagation of the silk-worm; caused large tracts of land to be prepared for the culture of the sugar-cane; and established manufactories for the preparation of pitch, tar, and resin. He caused several thousand match-locks to be fabricated; he opened a mine of iron ore, and constructed smelting furnaces. He distributed his land forces into regular regiments, established military schools, where officers were instructed in the doctrine of projectiles and gunnery by European masters. Adran had translated into the Chinese language a system of military tactics, for the use of his army. In the course of these two years he constructed at least 300 large gun-boats or row gallies, five luggers, and a frigate on the model of an European vessel. He caused a system of naval tactics to be introduced, and had his naval officers instructed in the use of signals. One of the English gentlemen, whom I mentioned to have been at *Sai-gong* in the year 1800, saw a fleet of ships consisting of 1200 sail under the immediate command of this Prince, weigh their anchors and drop down the river in the highest order, in three separate divisions, forming into lines of battle, in close and open order, and going through a variety of manoeuvres by signals as they proceeded along.

'During this interval of peace he likewise undertook to reform the system of jurisprudence, in which he was no doubt very ably assisted by the Bishop. He abolished several species of torture, which the law of the country had hitherto prescribed; and he mitigated punishments that appeared to be disproportionate to the crimes of which they were the consequence. He established public schools, to which parents were compelled to send their children at the age of four years, under certain pains and penalties. He drew up a system of rules and regulations for the commercial interests of his kingdom; caused bridges to be built over rivers; buoys and sea marks to be laid down in all the dangerous parts of the coast; and surveys to be made of the principal bays and harbours. He sent missions into the mountainous districts on the west of his kingdom, inhabited by the *Laos* and the *Miaotsé*, barbarous nations whom he wished to bring into a state of civilization and good government. These mountaineers are the people whom the Chinese designate by the degrading appellation of ‘Men with tails;” though, in all probability, they are the regular descendants of the true original inhabitants of this long civilized empire. In short, this Monarch, by his own indefatigable application to the arts and manufactures, like Peter of Russia, without his brutality, aroused by his individual example the energies of his people, and, like our immortal Alfred, spared no pains to regenerate his country. His activity and exertions will readily be conceived from the circumstance of his having, in less than ten years, from a single vessel, accumulated a fleet of twelve hundred ships, of which three were of European construction; about twenty were large junks, similar to those of China, but completely manned and armed; and the rest were large gun-vessels and transports.’

His daily mode of life is thus described:

‘To enable him the better to attend to the concerns of his government, his mode of life is regulated by a fixed plan. At six in the morning he rises from his couch, and goes into the cold bath. At seven he has his levee of Mandarins: all the letters are read which have been received in the course of the preceding day, on which his orders are minuted by the respective secretaries. He then proceeds to the naval arsenal, examines the works that have been performed in his absence, rows in his barge round the harbour, inspecting his ships of war. He pays particular attention to the ordnance department; and in the foundery, which is erected within the arsenal, cannon are cast of all dimensions.

‘About twelve or one he takes his breakfast in the dock yard, which consists of a little boiled rice and dried fish. At two he retires to his apartment and sleeps till five, when he again rises; gives audience to the naval and military officers, the heads of tribunals or public departments, and approves, rejects, or amends whatever they may have to propose. These affairs of state generally employ his attention till midnight, after which he retires to his private apartments, to make such notes and memorandums as the occurrences of the day may have suggested. He then takes a light supper, passes an hour with his family, and between two and three in the morning retires to his bed; taking, in this manner, at two intervals, about six hours of rest in the four-and-twenty.’

In chapter 10, the author gives a sketch of the manners, character, and condition of the natives of Turon. With regard to ingenuity, he thinks that these people are inferior to those of China: but they excel in personal courage; and they are not destitute of arts and manufactures, though the want of security (the curse attendant on a despotic government) prevents them from being rapidly advanced. On this point, Mr. B.'s reflections are very judicious; yet we cannot pass them over in a general sentence of praise, without noticing what appears to us a wonderful misunderstanding of the axiom of an oriental sage:

> 'An Oriental sage (says Mr. B.) has observed that the proof of a just government and a well-regulated police " is, when a beautiful woman covered with jewels can travel abroad in perfect security." What would this sage have said of that government and that police, where a helpless and wealthy old woman, surrounded by a set of lusty and indigent servants, commits herself and her property to them and to the world with as much composure and confidence, as if her physical strength was not in the least inferior to theirs.'

It is scarcely necessary to remark that an *old woman* is less an object of temptation than a *beautiful* woman, to 'lusty servants.' The oriental philosopher meant to put the strongest case, a double temptation, a *beautiful* woman, and a woman *decked in jewels*. Mr. B. has ruined the whole matter.—At p. 319, also, we think that the author is not very correct in his statement and inference. In a Cochin China boat, the company always sits in the fore part; and, as 'it would be a breach of good manners for the rowers to turn their backs on the passengers, they stand with their faces towards the bow, pushing instead of pulling the oars as is usually done in the western world.' We believe that in Sicily, at Malta, &c. the rowers all *push*; and because they push instead of pulling, *therefore* the company sits in the fore part.

Mr. Barrow cannot leave Cochin China without pointing out the advantages that would accrue to England from the possession of Turon. It is, he says, the Gibraltar of India: but Gibraltar employs 6000 of our troops.—If we do not seize on Turon, however, still it may be wise to consider the propriety of opening a trade to Cochin China, and on this subject the author proposes some plans that are worthy of attention. We do not sympathise with him in his alarm respecting the constant drain of silver towards China:—would he be frightened if there were a drain of woollen goods or of hard-ware towards China?

The latter part of this volume is occupied with a short narrative of a journey to the residence of the chief of the oshuanas; it is rather pleasing and important; and from prospects opened by the expedition, though it cannot be d to have been very successful, we hope that a second t has been already undertaken and executed.—We need longer detain the reader in stating our opinion of this ume, and of its author: the book is certainly very entertain- , and the writer is consequently intitled to commendation public patronage: the latter, probably, he now solidly en- s; and as in these cases the former is chiefly given in order t the latter may be obtained, praise may now, in the sent instance, be almost withholden as superfluous. If B.'s talents cannot be more usefully employed for the nmunity, we shall rejoice to hear that he has undertaken other voyage.

RT. II. *Miscellaneous Poetry*;—and *Select Icelandic Poetry*, translated from the Originals; with Notes. By the Hon. W. Herbert. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co.

VHEN we reflect on the early history of Iceland, and consider her superiority in arts and government over the ier barbarians of Europe, we feel a degree of astonishment d regret at the suddenness of her fall from that proud disction. The causes either of her rise or her decline have ver, we believe, been satisfactorily explained; and a preory note to this collection, which briefly enters into the oject, will not be considered as having materially assisted r inquiries. Though we cannot justly expect a philosoical dissertation to introduce us to a few miscellaneous ems, yet, when the attempt was actually made to account the decay of manufactures and municipal regulations, we uld have wished that less consequence had been attributed to wicked eruptions of Mount Hecla, and to the not less iel accumulation of ice in the polar regions. We trust that work on Icelandic literature, which Mr. Herbert holds out our expectations, will afford our philosophers information newhat more satisfactory. His accomplishments as a linist, and his acquaintance with Danes of rank and learning, advantages which few enjoy who might in other respects more competent to such an undertaking: but it is possible at, before he has searched very deeply into Runic mysteries, me moral facts may strike the eye of Mr. Herbert himself, iich will prove a more natural solution of the difficulty than operations of the *Fire king*, and the *Frost-king*, with whose ency he has hitherto found it necessary to be satisfied.

We observe a distinction stated in the above mentioned note, which is not, we believe, generally known in England, and which must have puzzled most of the thinking heads to whom the poetry of Iceland seemed worthy of their consideration. Those who are aware that much of Icelandic poetry is natural in thought and expression, but that still more is so laboriously composed and with such artificial inversions under the idea of poetical style as to exhibit a series of most occult enigmas, must have felt themselves much at a loss to discover by what strange combination of circumstances the two species could have been produced and relished by the same race. The truth is that they are the production of distinct æras; the most antient, simple, and beautiful, was the composition of warriors and skalds, who felt the emotions which they describe, and who sang to a nation of heroes: while the comparatively modern species must be referred to an age of riddles and conundrum, when the poet had ceased to be a hero or the friend of heroes. It was then that, in a state of more artificial society, sublimity and pathos were sought in extravagant metaphor and affectation; and a mode of expressing sentiment prevailed, which has removed the bulk of Icelandic poetry to such a hopeless distance from mortal comprehension.—Mr. Herbert's volumes refer to the first of these classes; and although we might wish for more ample, we cannot require more satisfactory evidence of the poetical powers of this extraordinary race of savages. We must, however, warn our readers not to expect in these specimens much variety of superb imagery, for that a ship will always be the Dragon of the Deep, and a Rainbow the Bridge of the Gods; nor to indulge the hope that they will discover, in the literal translations of the present editor, that splendour and pomp in which the Scandic rhimes have been arrayed by the gorgeous imagination of Gray.

Of the pieces in this collection, the first is intitled *the Song of Thrym*, and contains some anecdotes of the northern deities which are highly amusing. It is translated from the old Icelandic in Sæmund's Edda:

> ' Wrath (wroth) waxed Thor, when his sleep was flown,
> And he found his trusty hammer gone;
> He smote his brow, his beard he shook,
> The son of earth gan round him look;
> And this the first word, that he spoke;
> " Now listen what I tell thee, Loke;
> Which neither on earth below is known,
> Nor in Heaven above; my hammer's gone."
> Their way to Freyia's bower they took,
> And this the first word, that he spoke;

“ Thou, Freyia, must lend a winged robe,
To seek my hammer round the globe.”

‘ FREYIA *sung*. “ That shouldst thou have, though 'twere of gold,
And that, though 'twere of silver, hold.”

‘ Away flew Loke; the wing'd robe sounds,
Ere he has left the Asgard grounds,
And ere he has reach'd the Jotunheim bounds.
High on a mound in haughty state
Thrym the king of the Thursi sate;
For his dogs he was twisting collars of gold,
And trimming the manes of his coursers bold.

‘ THRYM *sung*. “ How fare the Asi? the Alfi how?
Why com'st thou alone to Jotunheim now?”

‘ LOKE *sung*. “ Ill fare the Asi; the Alfi mourn;
Thor's hammer from him thou hast torn.'

‘ THRYM *sung*. “ I have the Thunderer's hammer bound,
Fathoms eight beneath the ground;
With it shall no one homeward tread,
Till he bring me Freyia to share my bed.”

Freyia, however, whose person he wished to secure by this extraordinary mode of courtship, refuses all assent to the proposition; very properly observing that people might consider her as indeed desirous of a husband, if she connected herself with one of such execrable character, and a Jotun too, a name of the most extreme opprobrium among the Asi. The hammer, notwithstanding, must be again obtained, it being found by experience that this implement was necessary to their existence and power: as we are informed by that veracious historian, Saxo Grammaticus, that the Gods in battle were obliged to fly before the Giants when Thor was unable to use it. The Asi meet in council; and the virago continuing inflexible, Thor is with much intreaty induced to personate her; which he performs to admiration, considering the length of his beard and the strength of his appetite. The marriage-feasts being ended, the *hammer miolner* is brought in to plight the maid:

‘ The Thunderer's soul smiled in his breast,
When the hammer hard on his lap was placed,
Thrym first the king of the Thursi he slew,
And slaughter'd all the giant crew.
He slew that giant's sister old,
Who pray'd for bridal gifts so bold.
Instead of money and rings, I wot,
The hammer's bruises were her lot.
Thus Odin's son his hammer got.'

Mr. Herbert observes on the first and second lines of Freyia's speech; 'It is remarkable that silver is here mentioned, as preferable to gold, and I believe intentionally; for gold is frequently spoken of by the old Icelandic poets, and silver very rarely. Suhm (*Hist. of Danm.* i. 119.) observes, that many utensils of gold have been dug out of the earth, in the northern countries, but very few of silver.' With all our partiality for gold,—that necessary incumbrance,—we cannot allow this doctrine to pass without examination. From the lines themselves we can gather nothing conclusive, and that Suhm may be correct in his assertion we cannot deny; we only think that people have not been fortunate enough to dig in the proper places when they were in search of silver utensils. That such did exist in the northern countries, at a very early date, is clear from contemporary historians; an authority which we should deem equal to that of poets in a question of this nature. In the *Ripæ Cimbricæ*, is an account of plate belonging antiently to ecclesiastical foundations, which it would astonish Mr. Herbert to peruse after having written the above note. "*Sed vasa illa, aurea et argentea, hodie non supersunt.*" *Rip. Cim.* p. 213. We wish heartily that they may be dug up soon, and in the meanwhile we beg the sceptic's attention to a passage in the *Antiquitates Danicæ* of Bartholinus: "*Attamen ante nummorum notitiam, auro et argento abundasse Septentrionem, quæ sive piratica arte olim in pretio habita, sive bellis exterorum quibus semper implicabantur, sive peregrinationibus sive vicinorum commerciis acquisita sunt, verissime collegit venerandus Parens,*" &c. p. 163.

That gold was deemed superior to silver, Mr. Herbert will find proved by many authorities, and among others by Adam of Bremen, p. 84. edit. Hamb. 1706. It is indeed evident that, had silver been accounted the more precious metal, rings and other ornaments on which the highest value was set would have been almost universally made of it; yet we believe that very few passages can be pointed out in northern historians or poets, to shew that silver rings were used. We know only of one, viz. in the *Stiornu Odda Draumur*, appended to the Icelandic *Rymbegla*.

We should wish to be better acquainted with the nature of the 'winged robe' in the first of our extracts: but Mr. Herbert has not indulged our curiosity. He occasionally, indeed, passes over allusions to the costume and manners of antiquity, which are far from being apparent or generally understood, in a way that would make some critics, who had a less favourable opinion of his attainments than we have formed, suppose that he knew nothing about them. Thus, the lines in the next poem but one—

> 'The shrines have said that Ulter's friend
> The loveliest, to death must tend,'

require comment; few know that the Gothic nations had temples whence they received oracular responses; and we think that they would rather have had this information in the notes to the poem than, in lieu of it, an assurance that Mr. Cottle was wretchedly qualified to be a translator of the Edda. That Mr. Herbert, however, does not wilfully lose any opportunity of adding to our stock of knowlege, when it is in his power to increase it, is plainly seen from a remark which he makes on the conclusion of this song of Thrym. 'She got blows instead of skillings, (a coin *nearly* answering to a halfpenny) and strokes of the hammer instead of many rings. This seems to be the origin of our old proverb, to get more kicks than halfpence.' We have been long ago taught by some ingenious gentlemen that all our romantic fictions are stolen from the Arabians, and we are now for the first time informed of another though smaller branch of this vast system of peculation, namely the purloining of proverbs from Iceland; a circumstance not surprising, when we consider the great intercourse which has always subsisted between that country and Great Britain; and we may add, in the present instance, the knowlege of our ancestors respecting the Song of Thrym and the catastrophe of Thrym's sister.

The next in succession of those poems that have chiefly engaged our attention is *Gunlaug and Rafen;* and our notice was first attracted by the versification, which is of a species the worst calculated to convey to our ears the idea of the march and flow of Icelandic measure. We think that in all such instances Mr. Herbert acts very injudiciously when he employs the quatrain, or any other combination of rhymes, in preference to the couplet used in the *Song of Thrym*; which he appears to us to manage well, and which gives the expression of the rude numbers of the Skalds with good effect. Stanzas like the following have nothing in common with the genius of his originals:

> 'The rich delights of love
> To many fatal prove;
> From women oft does sorrow spring:
> Much evil do they bear,
> Though fashion'd purely fair
> And chaste by heaven's almighty King.'

We were not more surprised at the versification of this little poem than at a singular fancy of the editor which has induced him to change its title. 'In the Icelandic, the fictitious names Svafader and Skarthedin are used instead of Gunlaug and Rafen, but the author certainly alluded to their celebrated history; and deservedly is it celebrated, since, in consequence of their fatal enmity, the legal duel was abolished, by the full public assembly of the Icelanders, in the year 1011, only eleven years after the first establishment of the Christian religion amongst them.' We have reason for believing that Mr. Herbert is here completely in a mistake; 1st, Because Sæmund's Edda was compiled, we should suppose, within sixty or seventy years after the death of these heroes; and at that short distance of time their names would more probably be prefixed to what was totally unconnected with them, than withdrawn from the tale of their own sorrows; since their reputation and their story, yet recent in memory, would give an interest to every thing that related to them. 2dly, In the song, the heroes are represented as bound to each other by the closest ties of friendship, which were only broken by their unfortunate attachment to one object: but, from the *Sagan of Gunlaugi*, the authentic history of Gunlaug and Rafen, it appears that they never were friends for any length of time. A partiality, indeed, commenced: but we are speedily informed that they quarrelled about precedency in reciting their poems before the king, and were ever afterward irreconcileable foes; so that love had no share in making them enemies. The catastrophe in the song is the same, indeed, with that of Gunlaug and Rafen: but, although we are always inclined to give Fluellen's resemblances their due share of importance, we cannot allow them to prove identity.

The Song of Harold the Hardy.—This song, so descriptive of the mingled spirit of gallantry and adventure which antiently characterised the Scandinavian pirates or sea-kings, is here translated literally, and, we think, with considerable success: but Mr. Herbert's wish to differ from others has led him to reverse the meaning of the burden, and thus he completely detroys the effect of the song. Harold, after having boasted of his skill in manly exercises, adds to each stanza a complaint, "*but the maid of the gold ring in Russia refuses to embrace me.*" Taking the advantage, however, of an ambiguous expression in the original, Mr. Herbert's chorus is,

"With golden ring in Russia's land
To me the virgin plights her hand."

It is true that he has the concurrence of some scholars for this explanation: but none of them seem to have been aware that the insensibility of the northern damsel, to the deserts of a warrior, was affected from a desire that he might be induced to perform some brilliant action for her sake alone. We are informed by Pontoppidan that Fretho III. of Denmark was at one time in an exactly similar predicament with Harold the Hardy. He wooed a Russian maiden, and urged the same qualifications in his favour: but the Russian maiden replied, "you are not yet sufficiently celebrated."

We give one stanza of this song, as an instance of tolerably happy compression:

> 'Eight feats I ken; the sportive game,
> The war array, the fabrile art;
> With fearless breast the waves I stem;
> I press the steed; I cast the dart;
> O'er ice on slippery skates I glide;
> My dexterous oar defies the tide.'

Each of the chiefs of the north seems to have had, at this period, his catalogue of savage virtues. Mr. Herbert will find that of king Oluff Tryggeson in Jacobson Debbes's "*Færoæ et Færoa Reserata.*"

The Lamentation of Starkader. We observe a wildness in the prose account quoted by Mr. H. and subjoined to this effusion, which is very striking:

> "Starkader accompanied king Vikar to Hordaland; he was the most distinguished warrior in the army, and dearest to the king. The wind proving boisterous and unfavourable, after the oracles had been consulted, it was deemed, that Odin required a man, drawn by lot from the army, to be hanged as a sacrifice; the lot fell upon Vikar, which produced great sorrow amongst his followers. A little before midnight Starkader was awakened by his foster-father Hrosharsgrani, who bade him rise and follow him. They took a small boat, and rowed to an island: there went they up into the woods, and found a spot, from which the trees had been cleared. Eleven men sat there upon stools, and a twelfth seat was unoccupied. They advanced into the assembly, and Hrosharsgrani seated himself in the vacant place. They all saluted Odin, who said, that the judges should decide the fate of Starkader."

Yet all this mysterious pageant is allowed to pass before our eyes without a word of explanation; and we are left to our own sources of information, to learn that it was anciently a method of practising divination. The custom appears to have prevailed very generally in the north; and it had not, as we are informed by Martin in his Description of the Western Islands of Scotland, entirely ceased there so late as the beginning of the last century. We hope to see this poem better illustrated in a future edition; and we take this opportunity of informing the editor that he will find in Bartholinus, p. 644, a strange poetical rhapsody, which evidently refers to the same event,

Song of Regner Lodbrock. As our specimens from
sent translations have hitherto been short, we shall in
a larger extract from the conclusion of this celebrated

'We smote with swords; I hold, that all
By destiny or live or fall:
Each his certain hour awaits;
Few can 'scape the ruling Fates.
When I scatter'd slaughter wide,
And launch'd my vessels to the tide,
I deem'd not, I, that Ella's blade
Was doom'd at last to bow my head;
But hew'd in every Scottish bay
Fresh banquets for the beasts of prey.

'We smote with swords; my parting breath
Rejoices in the pang of death.
Where dwells fair Balder's father dread,
The board is deck'd, the seats are spread!
In Fiolner's court with costly cheer
Soon shall I quaff the foaming beer,
From hollow skulls of warriors slain!
Heroes ne'er in death complain;
To Vider's hall I will not bear
The dastard words of weak despair.

'We smote with swords; their falchions bright
(If well they kenn'd their father's plight,
How venom fill'd a viperous brood
Have gnaw'd his flesh and lapp'd his blood)
Thy sons would grasp, Aslauga dear,
And vengeful wake the battle here.
A mother to my bairns I gave

My youthful sons with rage will swell,
Listening how their father fell:
Those gallant boys in peace unbroken
Will never rest, till I be wroken.

'We smote with swords! where javelins fly,
Where lances meet, and warriors die,
Fifty times and one I stood
Foremost on the field of blood.
Full young I 'gan distain my sword,
Nor fear'd I force of adverse lord;
Nor deem'd I then, that any arm
By might or guile could work me harm.
Me to their feast the Gods must call;
The brave man wails not o'er his fall.

'Cease, my strain! I hear a voice
From realms, where martial souls rejoice.
I hear the Maids of slaughter call,
Who bid me hence to Odin's hall.
High-seated in their blest abodes
I soon shall quaff the drink of Gods.
The hours of life have glided by;
I fall; but smiling shall I die.'

In the first of these stanzas, 'I deem'd not I,' is much too rhetorical for "a last dying speech and confession." In the third, 'a mother to my bairns I gave' is quite ludicrous, as are the last two lines of the following stanza. We are of opinion that old words may be occasionally used with effect, but we do not much approve of introducing into modern composition the old terminations of verbs. When the editor is more deeply read in our writers of antiquity, he will correct some errors into which he has fallen in employing their phraseology: he always gives *I am hight* for *I hight*; and we believe that he is singular in his use of the word *wighty*. In the last stanza, 'drink of the Gods' should be simply *ale* or *beer*. Odin is mentioned immediately before; and readers will naturally conclude that Regner's beverage is the same as that of Odin, which could not be the case, since the Edda assures us that Odin alone drinks wine in Valhalla. Throughout the poem, the choral part loses all its rude expression and strength in Mr. H.'s hands. In the orginal, it is *Hiuggom ver med biaurvi, we hewed with swords;—smote* is certainly a very inadequate translation.

It is no small part of Mr. Herbert's merit, that his knowlege of the northern languages has in many instances enabled him to correct the mistakes of the former editors of Icelandic poetry. This song of Regner Lodbrock affords some remarkable examples; and we should have felt ourselves bound to have allowed him much greater credit for his accuracy, had he "borne his faculties more meekly." To the passages in which other translators have represented Regner as comparing his battles to the pleasures received from the favours of beauty, Mr. H. has given quite a contrary turn, making them imply that his battles were serious concerns, and very unlike those pleasures. This error in the first instance arose from their rendering *varat* by *it was*, instead of *it was not*: *var* means was, and *at*, when joined to it, has the force of a negative, and is not, as they supposed, used interrogatively. So far Mr. Herbert, we think, was right: but when he adds, (in his incidental note on the *Death of Hacon*,) 'What notion the learned translators entertained of kissing young widows I cannot pretend to say; but it is singular that they should have imagined Regner Lodbrock could have thought it like breaking heads with a broad sword,' he displays less knowlege of antient northern manners than we should have supposed him to possess. We have no hesitation in stating our opinion that, in as far as the sentiment is concerned, that of the former editors is more conformable to the ideas of a Scandinavian hero, who delighted in nothing so much as the revelry of battle. From a few words, *hujus gaudia prœlii*, in the address of a barbarian chief to his followers, Gibbon discovered with much acuteness that the speech was in part genuine, and above the invention of a degenerate Roman. The joy with which the Cimbri rushed into battle was a fact which had struck Cicero, and on which he philosophises.

Of this kind of comment we have another example, also in a note on *the Death of Hacon*; where, in attempting to explain a doubtful passage, Mr. Herbert thus proceeds: 'Dr. Percy, who followed Peringskiold, asserts that Bauga was a subordinate god of war; but no such person is mentioned in either Edda, and I can find no account of him. I believe, that Peringskiold, who was puzzled by the word, got rid of the difficulty by translating it Bogonis, and that Bogo was deified by the learned bishop.'—It is remarkable that, after this note, the author should have penned another (see vol. ii. p. 10.) in which the existence of a person bearing this name in the Edda is placed beyond a doubt. He is not, however, a God: but a Bavo, or Bago, is mentioned in an old chronicle in Fabricius' *Scriptores Septentrionales*, as the third in succession to Odin; and if we adopt the opinion of Scheffer, (an opinion, indeed, which Mr. Herbert may find corroborated by evidence in his own volumes,) that many of the kings of the north took the names of their gods, the difficulty will vanish, and the learned Bishop be freed from the very disagreeable charge brought

against

ıst him. Lambecius, in his work intitled *Res Hamburgenses*, us that *Bog* signifies God in the old Bohemian and Polish ues.

Te have now concluded our examination of those parts of publication which appear important. It contains also slations from the modern European languages, in which chief feature apparent is an affectation of extensive read- which has in general induced Mr. Herbert to translate not than one piece from the same author, and to refer sun- thoughts, not distinguished either for their excellence or novelty, to writers who have entertained them in common all the sons of Adam. Much indifferent poetry, moreover, esented to us in this collection, of which Francisco de eros, Fray Luis de Leon, Bartolome Leonardo de Argen- &c. &c. are altogether innocent. One effusion, *the r of Amiens*, begins thus:

> ' Our arms have thunder'd,
> And Europe has wonder'd
> At trophies of valor by Britain display'd;
> But April expiring
> Has heard the guns firing,
> To sound the sad fall of her glory and trade.
>
> ' The pow'r of France growing,
> All thrones to her bowing,
> Our wealth to republican losels a prey,
> Our trophies all faded,
> Though proudly paraded,
> The tackle, which held us, is all cut away.'

his poem, we are told, is written after the manner of the *ers of the Forest*, a song which is characterised by the most ing tenderness and simplicity; qualities not very discernible, pprehend, in the imitation. The burden, in particular, een most barbarously parodied.

f Mr. H.'s powers in blank verse, a more favourable spe- n may be quoted:

Written in the Neigbourhood of Croyland Abbey, 1801.

> ' O venerable pile! whose shatter'd form
> From abject Croyland's melancholy site
> Looks proudly o'er this wide extended plain,
> Much of thine ancient grandeur and high name
> Old annals tell; much of fierce elfin shapes,
> And fiery forms, amid thy lonely fens
> Strange sojourners, who never dared invade
> Thy hallow'd precincts, but around them lurk'd
> To harm the holy pilgrim wandering nigh.
> So monks have fabled; now forlorn thou see'st

No mitred feasts, no pride of papal rites:
Fallen are the domes, where once Ingulphus dwelt,
Where pomp and learning reign'd. Thy sounding tow'r
Calls but the simple cottager to pray,
Neglected now: yet not by me unbless'd;
For here unknown beneath a humble roof
Oft have I changed the tumult of the town,
The toil of study, and the city's smoke,
For healthy exercise and private ease;
Forgetful of the busy cares, that lie
Thick scatter'd on the restless path of life.

'O holy Solitude! thy charming cup,
Too deeply quaff'd, unfits the social mind
For public intercourse and useful toils;
But sometimes woo'd thou dost correct our thoughts,
Soften the rude asperity of pride,
Wake each pure feeling, and exalt the heart.
On thee, mild Power, (wherever fate shall guide
Thro' the wild storms of faction, which have rent
The solid base of Europe, and now shake
My trembling country) sometimes will I call;
Whether on rushy moor, or shady bank,
In active exercise, or tranquil rest,
Still cherish'd, still chaste partner of my thoughts!'

The work which Mr. Herbert has in contemplation, and to which we have already alluded, will, we hope, increase our opinion of his talents, and ameliorate the impression which his own poetry has at present made on our minds. It will at all events prove a more noble exertion of his faculties than the composition of riddles, or than turning the choruses of Euripides into Italian sonnets.

Art. III. *The beneficial Effects of Christianity on the temporal Concerns of Mankind,* proved from History and from Facts. By the Right Rev. Beilby Porteus, D.D. Lord Bishop of London. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Cadell and Davies, &c. 1806.

In Bishop Hoadly's Tracts are two Sermons on Matt. x. 34, "concerning the Divisions and Cruelties of which the Christian Religion hath been made the *occasion*"; in which the judicious preacher, after having remarked how completely the prophecy of our Lord has been fulfilled by the disturbances, divisions, hatreds, and persecutions which have prevailed in the Christian world, proceeds to vindicate the Gospel from the guilt and blame of this unhappiness: desiring us, for the honour of our religion, "to distinguish between Christianity and Christians, and not to blame the one for the faults of the other."

" On all occasions, it is necessary to bear this distinc-
n mind ; for whatever might have been the operation or
ion of the Gospel, its nature and tendency are unques-
ly beneficial.

tender our most unqualified assent to the position laid
by the learned and amiable author of the work before us,
cting the kind influence of the Gospel on the temporal
rns of mankind ; and we readily allow that, in the rela-
of husband and wife, parent and child, master and
nt, it has displayed its beneficial effects : but, when we ap-
o history and to facts, we are forced to admit that many
nstances present themselves to our recollection, which
fix as great a blot on those who have denominated them-
Christian princes, as any events in the antient world can
to the character of Pagans. The cruelties practised by the
r have, if possible, often surpassed even those of the
. Is any feature more abhorrent to humanity in any part
annals of Paganism, than the history of Persecution and
e Inquisition among Christians ? Are the wars recorded
eathen writers half so barbarous as those which mistaken
ous zeal has stimulated ?—or are the savage sports of the
itheatre to be compared in point of cruelty to the studied
res of the *Holy Inquisition ?*

tting as high a value on the Christian Scriptures as the
p of London can possibly affix on them, we advert to
circumstances with no intention of degrading the
el, but for the mere matter of fact purpose of shewing
if the Christian be compared with the Pagan world,
e broad ground of history, the former has no great rea-
for exultation over the latter. The conduct of men in
r has been generally *unchristian* ; and Bishop Porteus's
rk on antient may be applied to modern governments,
t they are little else than military establishments.' Our
on proclaims " Peace on Earth and good will towards
:" but its professors are often as eager for war as ever
ns were ; and it may be fairly questioned whether the
rn system of war be not, from its arrangements and its
acted nature, more destructive to the human race than
warfare pursued by the Pagans. We hope that this R.R.
or is correct when he observes that, ' though too much
ness and animosity, too much propensity to war, too
y acts of passion and cruelty are still to be found among
nations of the earth, yet the diabolical principle of *venge-*
is certainly much abated, and many of its most tragical ef-
are no longer seen' : but we must remark that, when
between contending nations are prosecuted with passion

and obstinacy, and when their pride and interest are concerned, a vindictive and implacable fury will be generated, in spite of the remonstrances of religion.

"History," says Gibbon, "is little more than the register of the crimes, follies, and misfortunes of mankind:" but these crimes, follies, and misfortunes, are as little to be ascribed to Philosophy as to the genius of the Gospel; and we wish the learned and respectable Prelate to reflect whether, in his philippic against Philosophy, he has not exceeded the limits of moderation. Can pagan philosophy be represented as pestiferous and sanguinary, when, as the above-mentioned historian remarks, "if a man were called to fix the period in the history of the world during which the condition of the human race was most happy and prosperous, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Domitian to the accession of Commodus"; during the greatest part of which, the world was under the government of philosophic emperors? Though the moral precepts of Heathen Philosophy are not of equal purity and extent with those of Christianity, we have as little reason for attributing to it the contests of the Pagan world, as to accuse the Gospel of the cruel and exterminating warfare carried on by the Spaniards against the natives of Hispaniola and Peru.

If we descend to modern times, we know not any sect of philosophers who are intitled to the epithet of 'γενος φονικωτατον, a murder-loving race'; nor can we allow that 'Voltaire and his numerous disciples are justly considered as the chief source of those dreadful calamities, that have been for so many years desolating almost the whole continent of Europe.' At a particular period, this language was in vogue; but we hoped that it had passed away with the revolutionary storm which gave it birth. Whatever pernicious doctrines Voltaire may have disseminated, he has never been a preacher of cruelty; and the massacres at Ismael and Oczakow may as well be attributed to modern philosophy, as the enormities in France at the subversion of the old regime. It is but fair to ask where, in any of the writings of modern philosophers, is a pretext furnished for imputing to them the horrors of the Revolution? At this never-to-be-forgotten epoch, the character of the French people was lamentably developed; and the sanguinary features which it then exhibited reflect rather on the subverted government under which this character had been formed, than on the speculations of any real or pretended philosophers. The old government of France was intolerant and persecuting, and its horrible executions were calculated to harden the feelings of the people; while the exertions of Voltaire, especially in the affair of the Calas family, were humane, and in opposition to the persecuting spirit encouraged by the French clergy.

Bishop Porteus makes a more effectual attack ' on the Philosophers of the present day,' when he calls on them ' to show from whence they derive that humanity to which they now lay claim, and which, it seems, has produced such beneficial consequences. If they say from the cultivation of their minds, the improvement of their understanding, and the extent of their knowledge and erudition, it is, then, obvious to ask, how it comes to pass that these causes should not, in ancient times, have produced the same effects ?'—The fact is that the principles of the Gospel have diffused themselves over the region of intellect ; and that even speculative philosophers, who have resisted its evidences, have been subdued by its amiable spirit. Our modern philosophic schemes have discovered a romantic excess rather than a deficiency of humanity ; and they have had for their object not the destruction and misery of the human race, but the creation of that state of happiness which is depicted in the glowing language of antient prophecy. We venture, therefore, to assert that the Bishop of London's account of antient and modern philosophy requires his serious reconsideration. Never could we attribute the blessings of the Gospel to this source, though we see no reason for terming philosophy cruel. In the following sentences, with the above exceptions, the R.R. author speaks our sentiments:

> ' In the Religion of Christ we see a spirit of meekness, mercy, gentleness, humanity, and kindness, which has been for more than eighteen hundred years contending with the evils generated by paganism, has actually banished some of them from the face of the earth, has greatly mitigated and softened others, is gradually undermining all the rest, and has already given so different a colour to the whole system of human affairs, has introduced so large a portion of benevolence and mutual good-will into the minds and manners of men, into all the various relations of social, civil, and domestic life, as plainly shews the sacred source from whence it springs. Philosophy (both ancient and modern) is cruel. and could not be the author of such blessings as these. There could be but one author of them, THE GOD OF ALL CONSOLATION AND JOY.'

On the whole, this work merits general attention, and is calculated to promote the beneficial effects of christianity.

Art. IV. *Memoirs of Dr. Joseph Priestley, to the Year 1795; written by Himself*: with a Continuation to the Time of his Decease, by his Son Joseph Priestley; and Observations on his Writings, by Thomas Cooper, President Judge of the 4th District of Pennsylvania, and the Rev. William Christie. 8vo. pp. 481. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1806.

Literary and scientific men commonly make their way to eminence through so many humiliating and depressing circumstances, that their memoirs rarely excite the envy of the proud and worldly-minded. It is necessary to have a predominant love of science, in order to follow with satisfaction the progress of genius from its obscure origin to its summit of fame; to mark the difficulties and discouragements with which it struggled; to trace the advancement of intellect in the career of free inquiry; and to register the results of a life indefatigably devoted to philosophical and metaphysical investigation. If we are not induced to adopt Dr. Priestley's opinions, we must at least applaud his persevering industry, his integrity, and his intrepidity: while the student in humble life may learn from his example, that patience will ultimately triumph over narrow circumstances; and that talents, steadily cultivated, will gradually enlarge the sphere of their useful exertions and of their fame. As different individuals collect ideas in varying situations, and associate them differently in their minds, we may reasonably expect that discordances of opinion will ever prevail among the most learned and inquisitive of men; a fact, which though generally deplored by the vulgar, is to the philosopher a ground of no uneasiness. Thus, indeed, he is furnished with divers objects of comparison, is invited into numerous trains of reflection, sees the same subject in different points of view, and has a fairer chance of approximating truth, if he be precluded from absolutely arriving at it. Some persons are apt to be alarmed at so bold and unaccommodating a writer as Dr. Priestley: but they pay their faith a very bad compliment by the expression of such fears. Truth has more than human strength, she is naturally invincible; and the more we put her to the test, the more we promote her glory and success. In this view, such men as Dr. Priestley will be of use to the world. We mean not to insinuate that they who oppose received opinions must necessarily be in the right: but they must do good, as they provoke examination, as they prevent implicit faith, and as they lead christians to build their principles on a firm foundation. If our sentiments will bear discussion, the most daring inquirer will not shake them; and if we have never thought of "giving a reason for the hope that is in us," we ought not to be offended with those who invite us to exercise our best faculties on the ground of natural and revealed religion,—on whatever can interest us as inhabitants of this world, and as expectants of a life to come.

We have hazarded these observations as introductory to the notice of a man whose labours have excited the most violent prejudices, who met with hard treatment from his countrymen, and who, being now removed from this scene of contention, calls on posterity fairly and candidly to appreciate his character. 'A time will come, (says he,) when they will do me justice.'

Joseph Priestley, the son of a maker and dresser of woollen cloth, was born, March 13, (O.S.) 1733, at Fieldhead, six miles south-west of Leeds in Yorkshire; he obtained the usual education of a regular Dissenting Minister, and first settled at Needham Market, Suffolk, with a small congregation, on the petty salary of £30 a year. Though the first principles instilled into him were Calvinistic, his mind soon took an heterodox turn; and his early labours in the ministry were far from being popular. He tells us that he felt at Needham the results of a low despised situation; yet while he comments on the neglects which he experienced at this period of his obscurity, he mentions with apparent satisfaction the effects of his subsequent popularity on those who formerly refused to hear him. 'Visiting that country some years afterwards, when I had raised myself to some degree of notice in the world, and being invited to preach in that very pulpit, the same people crowded to hear me, though my elocution was not much improved, and they professed to admire one of the same discourses they had formerly despised.' We believe this to be a very common case.

At Needham, Mr. P. endeavoured to add to the scantiness of his income by undertaking the task of a schoolmaster, but without effect, since his learning could not here atone for his heterodoxy. When, however, he afterward removed to Nantwich in Cheshire, the plan of a school was adopted with success. From this place he was invited to Warrington, to become a tutor in the Academy or College instituted in that town; and during his residence in this situation, he not only increased the stock of his knowlege, but consulted the enlargement of his comforts by taking to himself a wife peculiarly adapted to a studious husband. 'This proved (says he) a very suitable and happy connection, my wife being a woman of an excellent understanding, much improved by reading, of great fortitude and strength of mind, and of a temper in the highest degree affectionate and generous; feeling strongly for others, and little for herself. Also, greatly excelling in every thing relating

to

to household affairs, she entirely relieved me of all concern of that kind, which allowed me to give all my time to the prosecution of my studies, and the other duties of my station.'

During his continuance at Warrington, the memorialist published, among other works, his *History of Electricity*, and his *Chart of Biography*; the last of which procured for him the title of LL.D. from the University of Edinburgh, and the former introduced him into the Royal Society. Though we are not presented with any composition in verse, Dr. P. informs us that he occasionally indulged himself in making rhymes; and that, if he never attained to the rank of a poet, his verses had at least the good fortune of inducing Mrs. Barbauld (then Miss Aikin) to cultivate the Muses. From Warrington, he removed to Leeds; where he continued his theological and philosophical pursuits. It was at this period of his life that he became a Socinian, in consequence of his having read Dr. Lardner's *Letter on the Logos*; and that he wrote his *first pamphlet on Fixed Air*, which was soon followed by his *Experiments on Air*, published in the Philosophical Transactions, for which he received the Copley Medal.

Having by his friend Dr. Price been recommended to the Earl of Shelburne, afterward Marquis of Lansdowne, Dr. Priestley left Leeds in order to form a part of the establishment of that nobleman, on a salary of 250l. per annum, and a residence. With Lord Shelburne he visited the continent; and his observations on the philosophers whom he encountered at Paris, in the year 1774, merit particular notice:

> 'As I was sufficiently apprized of the fact, I did not wonder, as I otherwise should have done, to find all the philosophical persons to whom I was introduced at Paris unbelievers in christianity, and even professed Atheists. As I chose on all occasions to appear as a christian, I was told by some of them, that I was the only person they had ever met with, of whose understanding they had any opinion, who professed to believe christianity. But on interrogating them on the subject, I soon found that they had given no proper attention to it, and did not really know what christianity was. This was also the case with a great part of the company that I saw at Lord Shelburne's. But I hope that my always avowing myself to be a christian, and holding myself ready on all occasions to defend the genuine principles of it, was not without its use. Having conversed so much with unbelievers at home and abroad, I thought I should be able to combat their prejudices with some advantages, and with this view I wrote, while I was with Lord Shelburne, the first part of my *Letters to a philosophical unbeliever*, in proof of the doctrines of a God and a providence.'

Various other works were published by Dr. P. while he remained in the family of this nobleman: but the connection was not of long continuance; and it appears by the remarks made after its dissolution, that the philosopher derived as little satisfaction from it as the peer:

> 'Reflecting on the time that I spent with Lord Shelburne, being as a guest in the family, I can truly say that I was not at all fascinated with that mode of life. Instead of looking back upon it with regret, one of the greatest subjects of my present thankfulness is the change of that situation for the one in which I am now placed; and yet I was far from being unhappy there, much less so than those who are born to such a state, and pass all their lives in it. These are generally unhappy from the want of *necessary* employment, on which account chiefly there appears to be much more happiness in the middle classes of life. who are above the fear of want, and yet have a sufficient motive for a constant exertion of their faculties; and who have always some other object besides amusement.
>
> 'I used to make no scruple of maintaining, that there is not only most virtue, and most happiness, but even most true politeness in the middle classes of life. For in proportion as men pass more of their time in the society of their equals, they get a better established habit of governing their tempers; they attend more to the feelings of others, and are more disposed to accommodate themselves to them. On the other hand, the passions of persons in higher life, having been less controlled, are more apt to be inflamed; the idea of their rank and superiority to others seldom quits them; and though they are in the habit of concealing their feelings, and disguising their passions, it is not always so well done, but that persons of ordinary discernment may perceive what they inwardly suffer. On this account, they are really intitled to compassion, it being the almost unavoidable consequence of their education and mode of life.'

The next era in Dr. Priestley's history was his settlement at Birmingham; where, till the period of the riots, he spent his time much to his satisfaction: but where, in consequence of the great freedom of his theological writings, a scene of affliction was preparing for him, which must remain an indelible stain on the liberality of this country, at the conclusion of the eighteenth century. We wish that we could draw a veil over this part of the memoir; for no controversial indiscretion, or even violence, on the part of Dr. P., could authorize the method which his enemies took to silence him. He may not be justified in asserting that 'the friends of the court, if not the prime ministers themselves, were the favourers of the riot:' but the ministers of the king did not consult the honour of the nation, by omitting to extend to this philosophic sufferer the most ample indemnification: especially as the sum awarded him at the Warwick Assizes was very inadequate to his loss.—So unpopular was he become, chiefly on the score of his Unitarian publications, that London scarcely afforded him a refuge; and after having meditated to settle at Hackney, where he had been invited to succeed his late friend Dr. Price, he deemed it expedient to seek an asylum in the American States. He felt, however, some difficulty in renouncing his country; and he subjoins some reasons which, in addition to those previously given in the preface to his Fast sermon, ultimately induced him to take this step:

> ' The bigotry of the country in general made it impossible for me to place my sons in it to any advantage. William had been some time in France, and on the breaking out of the troubles in that country he had embarked for America, where his two brothers met him. My own situation, if not hazardous, was become unpleasant, so that I thought my removal would be of more service to the cause of truth than my longer stay in England. At length, therefore, with the approbation of all my friends without exception, but with great reluctance on my own part, I came to that resolution; I being at a time of life in which I could not expect much satisfaction as to friends and society, comparable to that which I left, in which the resumption of my philosophical pursuits must be attended with great disadvantage, and in which success in my still more favourite pursuit, the propagation of Unitarianism, was still more uncertain.'

Even at sea, Dr. Priestley's pen was not idle; and under all the difficulties which he encountered in America, he contrived to write several valuable publications, particularly the conclusion of his History of the Christian Church. The memoirs, as composed by himself, are dated Northumberland, March 24, 1795, when he completed the 62d year of his age.

This memoir, which is written in a plain and unaffected manner, enumerates the friends with whom Dr. P. was intimate, the pecuniary kindnesses which he received, and the works which he sent to the press: but in our abstract it was impossible for us to descend to all these particulars. In the continuation, by his son, we are presented with a view of Dr. Priestley's life from the time of his leaving England, in April, 1794, to his death, Feb. 6, 1804. It is the object of the son to vindicate the memory of his father against the insinuations of enemies; and particularly to counteract the report industriously circulated in England, that Dr. P.'s abilities were undervalued in America. For this purpose, we are informed of the attentions which were paid to the Doctor on his first arrival in that country, and the marks of respect which he continued to receive from individuals and bodies of men: but it is certain that he did not meet with any success in the propagation of Unitarianism, since his congregation at Northumberland never exceeded thirty persons; and he never solicited to be naturalized, resolving to die as he had been born, an Englishman.—Whatever objections may be made to the articles of Dr. P.'s creed, no man ever displayed a firmer faith in the perfect providence of God, or met death with a more cheerful hope in a future resurrection.

Subjoined to the Memoirs are five Appendices, containing distinct dissertations on Dr. Priestley's discoveries in Chemistry; on his metaphysical, political, and miscellaneous writings; and a summary of his religious opinions. In these Essays, we are invited to consider the prominent features of his life, and to review his principles as a philosopher, metaphysician, politician, and theologian.

The account of Dr. P.'s experiments on factitious Airs is prefaced by a display of the previous discoveries of Mayow; who 'knew how to make artificial air from nitrous acid and iron, but all the extraordinary properties of this gas remained unobserved by him as well as by others, until collected and imprisoned by Dr. Priestley, and exposed to the question under his scrutinizing eye. Indeed, as an experimentalist, Dr. Priestley stands unrivalled.'——'In the short period of two years, Dr. P. announced to the world more facts of real importance, and extensive application, and more enlarged and extensive views of the œconomy of nature, than all his predecessors in Pneumatic Chemistry had made known before.' The writer attempts, at the end of this appendix, to prop Dr. P.'s discarded theory of Phlogiston: but the advocate seems himself to despair of success.

The second appendix includes a long examination of Dr. Priestley's two *Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit* and *on Philosophical Necessity*; in the former of which the mechanism of the mind is asserted, and in the latter the doctrine of Necessity. Here the reporter warmly espouses the tenets of his author, and seems to treat those who hold the doctrine of a soul with no little contempt. We are told, towards the conclusion, that 'the time seems to have arrived, when the separate existence of the human soul, the freedom of the will, and the eternal duration of future punishment, like the docrines of the Trinity, and Transubstantiation, may be regarded as no longer entitled to public discussion.' What a short way of settling two of the most perplexing controversies!

This essayist subjoins his notion of the true way of studying Metaphysics: 'For my own part, I am persuaded that no Theory of the mind can be satisfactory, which is not founded on the history of the Body. I know of no legitimate passport to Metaphysics but Physiology.' We agree with him that Physiology is certainly an excellent hand-maid to Metaphysics.

The view of Dr. Priestley's political works and opinions, contained in the third appendix, shews that he was no revolutionist. While he remained in his own country, he uniformly wrote in support of the British Government by *King, Lords, and Commons;* and though we are told that he became a republican in the new world, yet it was evidently with some limitations. 'His wishes and his conversation always tended to impress the idea that improvements in each country should gradually progress, according to the respective situations of each, and in conformity to the previous ideas respectively prevalent on the subject of government, among the better informed classes, and the spirit of the times.'

In the observations on Dr. P.'s miscellaneous writings, a long analysis is given of his Lectures on the Theory of Language and Universal Grammar, printed (not published) for the use of the Students at Warrington *; and notice is taken of his letter to Dr. Wistar, in reply to Dr. Darwin's observations on Spontaneous Vitality, in order to introduce some very free remarks in favour of Atheism. 'I cannot see, (says this annotator) how the belief of no God can be more detrimental to society, or render a man less fit as a citizen, than the belief of the thirty thousand Gods of the Pagans, or the equal absurdities of trinitarian orthodoxy.' The best answer to the writer, in this case, will be found in the words of Dr. Priestley, extracted from his paper signed *A Quaker in Politics*, which is the most valuable portion of the 4th Appendix: 'Where there is no sense of religion, no fear of God, or respect to a future state, there will be no good morals that can be depended upon. Laws may restrain the excesses of vice, but they cannot impart the principles of virtue.'

The remainder of this Appendix includes a letter by Dr. P. in vindication of the character of Dr. Franklin from the charge of being an incendiary, while he lived under the protection of the British Government.

As Dr. Priestley's religious opinions are well known, we shall excuse ourselves from quoting any part of the Summary at the conclusion of the volume, which furnishes an accurate delineation of his character and merits: but which would have been more generally acceptable in this country, if the features of republicanism and infidelity, betrayed in the appendices, had been concealed.

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* The printer has made an error in filling up the blanks left in the copy for the Greek and Hebrew quotations, see p. 410, where, in speaking of χ as answering to ח in Hebrew, he should have put a ח.

This

writer mentions Hare's " Difficulties and Discourage-
as a *melancholy* letter. Did he not know that the
is a fine piece of *irony*?

V. *Description and Treatment of Cutaneous Diseases.* Order 3.
shes. Part I. containing the Varieties of Rubeola and Scar-
ina. By Robert Willan, M.D., F.A.S. 4to. 18s. sewed.
hnson.

s the commencement of Dr. Willan's elaborate work on cutaneous diseases has already fallen under our review, have at present to notice the publication of a 3d number, taining an account of the measles and scarlet fever. These eases compose the first part of his 3d order, *Exanthemata*; term which he translates by the word *rashes*, and describes be 'a redness of the skin, varying as to extent, continuity, nd brightness of colour, and occasioned by an unusual quantity of blood distributed to several of the cutaneous veins, in some instances with partial extravasation.'

Our medical readers will perceive that the term is here applied in a new sense, and that the definition is limited to the character of the eruption, independently of any general affection of the system. Dr. Willan's arrangement is confessedly artificial, founded not on any supposed resemblance or analogy between the nature of the diseases, but merely derived from their external appearance; and therefore we cannot be surprised to find that the present order consists of a different assemblage from those which have been usually allotted to it. The other affections classed as *exanthemata*, besides the measles and scarlet fever, are *urticaria*, *roseola*, *iris*, *purpura*, and *erythema*. —We shall postpone our remarks on the system in general, until we arrive at the termination of the work, when we shall have a better opportunity of comparing its different parts with each other.

Dr. Willan's account of the measles is full and satisfactory: but the symptoms and progress of this disease are well known, and have been so accurately described by preceding writers as to leave little room for offering any new information on the subject. The disease is highly contagious, particularly to children; yet the author supposes that some previous state of the body is requisite, in order to render it susceptible of the infection. Infants, he observes, are less liable to it than children at a more advanced age: but he has never met with any individual who is wholly unsusceptible of it, as is the case with the small-pox. Three varieties of the disease are pointed out; the *rubeola vulgaris*, *rubeola sine catarrho*, and *rubeola nigra:* the first of these varieties, as the name implies, being the common form of the disease. Dr. W. remarks that, in addition to the usual exanthematic eruption, a few miliary vesicles occasionally make their appearance; and he says, that the fluid from these vesicles has produced the disease by inoculation, but it does not seem that the symptoms were milder than in their usual form. He is decidedly of opinion that it is improper to check the eruption, when it has become visible, by cold or by purgatives; an opinion which is sanctioned by the concurrent testimony of all writers. He does not appear to have experienced the effects which would result from repressing the fever at its commencement; a practice which, although of doubtful success, probably would be less injurious than repelling the eruption when once formed. The constitutional symptoms and the eruption generally disappear about the same period, and leave the patient nearly free from complaint; sometimes, however, the pectoral affections return with increased violence, and are either immediately fatal, or prove ultimately mortal by inducing pulmonary consumption.

During the first period of the disease, little medical treatment is necessary, except an attention to diet and temperature. When the symptoms become severe in the latter stage, the most active practice is to be adopted; bleeding is frequently necessary, and should be employed where the oppression of the chest is considerable. It was formerly the custom, in all cases, to bleed at the commencement of the disease: but in modern times, when the antiphlogistic plan is pursued with more caution, and we are less influenced by systematic views, the lancet is not employed until particular symptoms indicate its use.

Rubeola sine catarrho is described as a complaint in which the eruption exhibits the usual features of measles, but is unattended by fever. It is with difficulty distinguished from other cutaneous eruptions, and appears not to secure the constitution against the feverish measles; whereas the author never met with an instance in which this latter affection occurred twice to the same individual.

Dr. W. closes his observations on measles with some remarks on the cases described by Sir W. Watson, under the title of "putrid measles," as occurring among the children at the Foundling Hospital in the years 1763 and 1768. He supposes these to have been, in fact, the scarlet fever; a conclusion which he draws from considering the symptoms as related by Sir W. Watson, the titles under which he entered the cases in the Hospital books, and the unsettled state of medical opinion [illegible]ion at that period respecting the nature of the scarlet [illegible]er, and its connection with the measles : a point which is [illegible]e fully illustrated in the subsequent section. After an in[illegible]al of so many years, it is perhaps impossible to form a [illegible]ided opinion on this matter : but we think that Dr. Wil[illegible]'s reasoning is at least extremely plausible ; and until we [illegible]all have an opportunity of again observing the symptoms de[illegible]ibed by Sir W. Watson, we must consider the existence of [illegible] putrid measles as very problematical.

We next proceed to the *Scarlatina*. Dr. Willan disposes [illegible] varieties which this disease assumes under three heads, to [illegible]ich he gives the specific names of *simplex*, *anginosa*, and *[illegible]igna*. In the first, a moderate degree of fever prevails, [illegible]hich continues for three or four days, attended with an ex[illegible]thematic eruption, but without any swelling, inflammation, [illegible] ulcer of the throat. Its general appearance is not very unlike [illegible]at of the measles ; and, as we afterward learn, they have [illegible]en very frequently confounded together. The diagnostics [illegible]e, however, for the most part, sufficiently well marked ; and [illegible]ey are very accurately laid down by Dr. Willan, as consisting [illegible] the different period at which the eruption becomes visible, in [illegible]e appearance of the efflorescence, in the accompanying symptoms, and in the manner in which the disease declines.—In the *scarlatina anginosa*, (which is perhaps the most usual form that occurs in this country,) besides the fever and efflorescence, the tonsils are considerably affected with swelling and inflammation ; which frequently proceed so far as to produce slight ulceration and sloughs in the throat. The symptoms of this species are admirably detailed ; and we regret that our limits will not permit us to quote them at full length.—With the exception of the state of the throat, the symptoms of the *scarlatina anginosa* resemble, in every respect, those of the *scarlatina simplex*, but exist in an aggravated form.

Scarlatina maligna presents an appearance materially different from the two others, and is altogether a much more formidable complaint. Its peculiarities are thus stated by Dr. Willan :

> ' It's symptoms on the first day are nearly the same as in the Scarlatina anginosa ; but some of the following peculiarities are afterwards observable :
>
> ' 1. A small indistinct, and irregular pulse ; a brown or black incrustation of the tongue, teeth, and lips :
>
> ' 2. A dull redness of the eyes, a dark red flushing of the cheeks, deafness, delirium, or coma alternating with fretfulness and violence :
>
> ' 3 Breath extremely fetid ; a rattling and laborious respiration, partly occasioned by a thick tough phlegm clogging the fauces ; a

constriction of the jaws, and painful deglutition; a fulness and livid colour of the neck, with retraction of the head:

'4. Ulcerations on the tonsils, and adjoining parts, covered with dark sloughs, and surrounded by a livid base: the tongue is often so tender that a slight touch produces excoriation:

'5. An acrid discharge from the nostrils, causing soreness, or chops, and even blisters, about the nose and lips, the fluid discharged being at first thin, but afterwards thick and yellowish:

'6. The rash is usually faint, excepting in a few irregular patches; and all of it presently changes to a dark or livid red colour. It appears late, is very uncertain in its duration, and often intermixed with petechiæ. In some instances the rash suddenly disappears a few hours after it is formed, and comes out again at the expiration of a week, continuing two or three days: in one case numerous patches of it appeared a third time, on the seventh day from the second eruption; these remained for two days.'

It is a curious fact that in this which is the most violent form of the disease, the characteristic efflorescence is seldom so considerable as in the other varieties, and sometimes is entirely wanting. This circumstance led to much uncertainty in the nosology of scarlatina; and from this cause, until within a few years, the identity of the different species was not acknowleged. On this subject, Dr. Willan observes:

'It is truly singular, that the slightest of all eruptive fevers, and the most violent, the most fatal disease known in this country, should rank together, and spring from the same origin. Experience, however, decides that the simple Scarlet Fever, the Scarlatina anginosa, the Scarlatina (or angina) maligna, and the scarlet ulcerating Sore-throat without the efflorescence on the skin, are merely varieties of one disease. That all of them proceed from the same source of contagion, is evident; because, under the same roof, in large families, some individuals have the disease in one form, some in another, about the same period. According to the state of the air, the soil, climate, or season of the year, one form predominates over all the rest, and gives the general character to every epidemic Scarlatina.'

Another point respecting *scarlatina*, which has been the ground of much controversy, is whether the disease can occur twice to the same person. The affirmative was formerly adopted by many eminent practitioners, and is still maintained by some men of respectability: but the contrary is the position most commonly received, and that which is supported by the greatest authorities. Dr. Withering, whose experience and judgment were so well known, was decidedly of this opinion; and the same was also maintained by the late Dr. Currie.

Perhaps the history of no disease of modern times, certainly of none so important, is involved in so much obscurity as that of *scarlatina*. Dr. Willan has taken particular pains with this part of his work; and he has displayed an unusual share of learning and acuteness in tracing its progress, as it, from time to time, became known under a variety of appellations, in all the different parts of Europe, during the last three centuries. We have some reason for supposing that it was observed by Aretæus, Acetius, and Aricenna: but the first unequivocal account is by Ingrassin, a Neapolitan, who wrote in the beginning of the 16th century. It appears that the term *rubeola* was originally applied to *scarlatina*, and that *morbilli* was the name given to the measles. During the 16th and 17th centuries, it occurred in almost every part of Europe, frequently committing the most dreadful ravages. It was called by a variety of names; and very different opinions were entertained respecting its nature, and its relation to other diseases. Morton was the first English writer who distinctly described it, but he imagined it to be only a variety of the measles. The term *scarlatina* seems to have been first applied to it by Sibbald. Even until the middle of the 18th century, it still continued to be very imperfectly understood; and while by some writers it was regarded as only a variety of the measles, others supposed that the different varieties were each distinct diseases. This opinion was adopted by Dr. Fothergill; whose treatise, published about the middle of the last century, contributed very largely to diffuse a more general knowlege of the complaint. As far as we are able to ascertain, Dr. Clark of Newcastle was the first writer who distinctly described the three varieties, and yet considered them as only species of the same disease; an opinion which was afterward decidedly embraced by Dr. Withering, and, in consequence of the authority of his name, has been since very generally admitted.

After the history of this disease, we proceed to the method of treating it.—The *scarlatina simplex* requires little medical aid. The *scarlatina anginosa* was formerly treated on the antiphlogistic plan, but this is now very generally given up by the English practitioners. Emetics, which were first brought into notice by Dr. Withering, form a principal part of the remedies; to which Dr. Willan, from his own experience, and that of Dr. Stanger, adds the oxymuriatic acid. Blisters are generally allowed to be inapplicable. We regret to learn that the affusion of cold water is only *beginning* to be employed in London. From the account given of its effects in the "Medical Reports," we should conceive it to be a more important remedy in *scarlatina* than in typhus itself.—In the *scarlatina maligna*, bleeding, blisters, and purging, are highly injurious; and on the continent, where they are still employed, they are productive of the worst effects. Dr. Fothergill first pointed out fusion through a family in which it has commenced its This caution is the more necessary, since it has been a by experience that the mildest case of *scarlatina* su propagate the disease in its most malignant form.

Art. VI. *A Treatise on the Process employed by Nature i*
the Hemorrhage from divided and punctured Arteries; and o
the Ligature; concluding with Observations on seconda
hage: the whole deduced from an extensive Series
ments, and illustrated by 15 Plates. By J. F. D. Jones,
8vo. pp. 250. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips, &c.

A METHOD of stopping the flow of blood, which is divided or punctured arteries, must necessarily one of the earliest objects to which the attention of would be directed. When wounds were inflicted this circumstance claimed the immediate notice of t tioner; and when it was accomplished, he consider as having executed all that his art required of him operations that were performed by the antients, the d stopping the hemorrhage was the point which gave the serious alarm; and which, in consequence of their knowlege on the subject, actually proved fatal to a lar of their patients. We find indeed that, in all peri to the present time, the different means which have posed for arresting the flow of blood have alway ceived with a degree of eagerness, which proves that regarded as the most valuable acquisitions to the

rations is too frequently counteracted by the bursting out of
els, the slipping of ligatures, or some other occurrence of
similar nature. The experiments related in the treatise
fore us are, we think, calculated to remove a great part of
is uncertainty; because they clearly point out the means
ich are employed by nature in restraining hemorrhage, and
sequently shew us the best method of directing the efforts
art.

After a short account of the structure of arteries, Dr. Jones
dertakes to examine the experiments and hypotheses of those
o have preceded him in his inquiry. It was not until nearly
e middle of the last century that this subject became a ques-
n of scientific investigation, when M. Petit directed his at-
ntion to it; and, from some observations which he made, he
ncluded that the hemorrhage was stopped by the formation of
coagulum of blood, at the mouth of the divided artery. This
pinion, which is to a certain extent well founded, met with a
umber of opponents, each of whom proposed his rival hypo-
esis. M. Morand thought that the blood was repressed by
e contraction of the artery; M. Pouteau, by the swelling of
e cellular substance around the vessel; the English surgeons
em in general to have acquiesced in the opinion of M. Morand;
hile, in Scotland, Mr. John Bell, as far as we are able to develop
s meaning, appears to coincide with that of M Pouteau. To the
hole, or the greatest part of these hypotheses, Dr. Jones allows
certain degree of merit; they seem in general to have been
duced from actual observation, but they are all defective
being too limited: they exclusively direct the attention
one of the changes which take place, while in reality the
ect is produced by the co-operation of several. Another
fect in them was that, although the framers of them professed
ascertain the operations of nature, they made their observa-
ns on cases in which art had interfered; and instead of
tching the process in its earliest stages, they did not make
eir examination until after a considerable length of time,
en the parts had undergone a complete change of structure
d appearance. These objections are altogether avoided in
e experiments performed by Dr. Jones, which indeed seem
have been conducted in the most unexceptionable manner.

The first series here related are intended to illustrate the
ocess which nature employs when the vessel is completely
ided. Dr. Jones's operations were performed on horses and
gs; the parts were left in the natural state, and were ex-
ined at different periods after the flow of blood had ceased.
teen experiments were made, and their results appear to
faithfully related and exhibited in a series of well executed
and

and expressive plates. The inference, fairly deducible from the experiments, is that different circumstances co-operate to produce the effect, and that these may be divided into temporary and permanent; the temporary, consisting of the retraction and contraction of the artery, and the formation of a coagulum at its mouth; the permanent, of the inflammation and consolidation of its extremity, by an effusion of coagulable lymph within its canal, between its tunics, and in the cellular substance surrounding it. After some time the coagula, and the other newly formed substances, having fulfilled their necessary office, are absorbed; and the vessel being no longer pervious to the blood, its cavity becomes obliterated, and its condensed tunics assume a ligamentous appearance.—Having in this manner endeavoured to establish his own idea of the process by which hemorrhage is repressed, the author proceeds to examine, with some minuteness, the facts that have been stated by physiologists who have supported different hypotheses; and he fairly shews that, when duly estimated, they are decidedly in his favor, although they were brought forwards with a different object.

Dr. Jones next enters on the 2d branch of his subject; viz. respecting the natural means by which hemorrhage is suppressed from arteries that are punctured, or only partially divided. The first remarkable circumstance which engages our attention is the difficulty with which aneurism seems to be produced in horses and dogs, which were again the poor animals destined for experiment. Instead of this occurrence, the author found that, when the puncture was of small dimensions, it completely healed, and the artery continued pervious; and when of more considerable size, either the vessel became obstructed, or it was intirely divided by the ulcerative process. We are therefore obliged to suppose that there is something different in the structure of the arteries of these animals and those of the human subject; or that the state of rest, in which they were kept, prevented the dilatation of the vessel. In operations on the human subject, it will be more prudent not to expect so favourable a termination; after having tied the artery above and below the wounded part, it is proper to cut it entirely across.

The process which takes place when the artery is punctured seems to be, first, the formation of a coagulum of blood between the artery and its sheath, which serves as a temporary restraint; afterward, a portion of lymph is poured from the part surrounding the lips of the wound, which unites to the coagulum, secures the part from the access of the air, and after some time completely consolidates it.

A third object which the author proposed for inquiry, and not the least interesting or important, is the effect produced by the application of the ligature. Dr. Jones found by experiment that, if a ligature be affixed round an artery, and then removed, although the circulation is immediately restored through the vessel, so that it appears to have undergone no change, yet, after a certain space of time, the vessel becomes completely impervious. This effect, as it appears, is produced in consequence of the ligature dividing the internal and middle coats of the artery, and thus inducing the inflammatory action in them, attended with the exudation of a quantity of coagulable lymph; an effect which was pointed out to Dr. Jones by Mr. Thomson of Edinburgh. We must, however, remark that we do not perceive, in the work before us, any absolute proof of the fact; and the subsequent inflammation of the coats might certainly have been caused by their having been merely bruized or wounded. It is said that this effect of the ligature was originally noticed by M. Dessault; and we regret that Dr. Jones has not given any reference to that author's works. —On the subject of the ligature we have a number of experiments related, which display the same accuracy and discrimination that we have before so highly commended; and from which the writer conceives himself warranted in drawing these conclusions:

'The effects of tying an artery properly appear then to be the following:

'1°. To cut through the internal and middle coats of the artery; and to bring the wounded surfaces into perfect apposition.

'2°. To occasion a determination of blood on the collateral branches.

'3°. To allow of the formation of a coagulum of blood just within the artery, provided a collateral branch is not very near the ligature.

'4°. To excite inflammation on the internal and middle coats of the artery by having cut them through, and consequently, to give rise to an effusion of lymph, by which the wounded surfaces are united, and the canal is rendered impervious: to produce a simultaneous inflammation on the corresponding external surface of the artery, by which it becomes very much thickened with effused lymph; and at the same time from the exposure and inevitable wounding of the surrounding parts, to occasion inflammation in them, and an effusion of lymph, which covers the artery, and forms the surface of the wound.

'5°. To produce ulceration in the part of the artery around which the ligature is immediately applied, *viz.* its external coat.

'6°. To produce indirectly a complete obliteration, not only of the canal of the artery, but even of the artery itself to the collateral branches on both sides of the part which has been tied.

'7°. To give rise to an enlargement of the collateral branches.'

The work concludes with some judicious practical observations on the form and application of the ligature, principally deduced from the experiments and observations detailed in the preceding chapter.

We consider Dr. Jones's treatise as a valuable addition to the knowlege both of the physiologist and the surgeon. It admirably illustrates the natural powers of the animal fabric, and the methods which the system employs to repair some of the most serious injuries that it can sustain:—it clearly points out the change which the vessels experience when wounded or divided;—and it thus enables the practitioner to employ his skill in seconding the efforts of nature. He will thus also be prevented from exclusively directing his attention to one part only of the operation; or, as has been not unfrequently the case, in endeavouring to produce an effect directly the reverse of that which he ought to have made it his aim to accomplish.

ART. VII. *The Science of Legislation*, from the Italian of Gaetano Filangieri. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Ostell. 1806.

THE Chevalier Filangieri has been already in some degree introduced to the British public. In the 6th and 10th volumes of our New Series, we took notice of the commencement of a translation of his work, by Mr. Kendal; to which, we suppose, sufficient encouragement was not extended, since the design was left incomplete. Sir Richard Clayton, the translator of Tenhove's Memoirs of the House of Medici and of St. Croix on the Life of Alexander the Great, has now assumed and accomplished the task of furnishing the English reader with a version of Filangieri's treatise: but, though acknowlegements are due to him for his labours, we should have hesitated in recommending to him this office, since so much difference prevails between the state of the science of legislation in Italy and in our own country. The work being now before us, however, and possessing many qualified claims to our respect, we shall prosecute our examination of it, and furnish our readers with some specimens at once of the author's reasoning and of the translator's merits.

A few prefatory pages contain a biographical sketch of Filangieri:

'He was born on the 18th Aug. 1752, and was the third son of Cæsar Prince of Arianelli. His mother was Duchess of Fragnito. In Naples the profession of an advocate is more respectable than in many other governments on the continent, and as it there leads to

> employments in the state, the younger sons of the nobility, ender patrimony, often make choice of it. Filangieri was the law, and whilst he practised in the Neapolitan courts, treatise with the title "Riflessione Politiche sull' ultima vrana che riguarda l'amministrazione di Giustizia," estab- ı legal and literary reputation.
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> 775, his uncle Serafino Filangieri, Archbishop of Palermo, nslated to the see of Naples, with the priory of the Con- ı order annexed to it, bestowed a rich commandery on :w, which enabled him to resign his profession, and to de- re agreeably to his inclination, his time to literary pursuits. ian Majesty in 1777 appointed him gentleman of the cham- he had a commission also in a royal corps of volunteers, as wholly composed of the nobility, and considered as the elect body guard.
>
> e appointments, however, did not break in upon his studies, rithstanding his attention to his public duties, the two first of "la Scienza della Legislazione" appeared in 1782, of ree numerous editions at Naples, two at Florence, one in and another at Milan, were soon published. A burst of n and applause followed, and Filangieri on the first vacancy ointed a counsellor of finance, an office which was only in- ı a step to greater emoluments and honours.'

is point in the author's life, Sir R. Clayton becomes l for farther particulars to Mr. Meyer, the writer of ery ingenious observations on Italy,' who was acquainted es with the Chevalier, and has given an animated n on his character. Mr. M. observes that

> he society of his intimates he was the man of the world, al- ightly and active, with the warmest attachment to their in- in the closet, where he was employed on his celebrated la Scienza della Legislazione,' he was the sage, occupied the foundations of the future happiness of his country. im when he was the companion of the heir to the crown, n he was the friend of his Sovereign. Surrounded with s the most dangerous to the heart and character of a an, whose birth, talents, and exterior advantages gave him to every pretension—in the midst of a voluptuous court—d with it by many and multiplied relations—the favourite of ch whose education he had shared – Filangieri was still him- ays equally great and noble, and worthy of esteem and ad- . In possession of high offices and employments, a more prospect opened before him, yet nothing could stand in ion with his love of domestic life, and his passion for literary osophical retirement. Notwithstanding the King's attach- him continued, he quitted therefore the court, and took up ence in his country house at Cava, where he devoted his the great work that will immortalize his name. Four years ssed in this retirement, so congenial with his disposition, was afterwards drawn from it only by the King's express

commands, who had conferred on him the office of royal counsellor of finance. Scarcely had he entered on this important charge, when a disorder arising from exposure to the night air in his return to Cava, after the incessant application of the day, deprived his country of him, in the midst of his labours for the re-establishment of its finances, by the encouragement of the three great sources of national prosperity, agriculture, manufactures and commerce. Filangieri died in the 36th year of his age, and few persons have been so generally lamented. Such a loss was indeed a national and public one. —His activity was unwearied—his devotion to the happiness of his country universally acknowledged, and in his private life his character was honourable and amiable—his morality exemplary. The 'Scienza della Legislazione', a work singular in itself, has been celebrated throughout Europe, and every unprejudiced judge of literary merit will always rank its author with the greatest political writers that have appeared."

He is stated also to have been distinguished by the most eminent personal attractions, and the most valuable qualities of the heart and mind. When the Sicilian king heard of his death, he shed tears, and exclaimed with a sigh, "*Ho più di tutto perduto nella morte di questo degno e illuminato vassallo.*" He left three sons, to whom the king has extended paternal care and protection.

In our former notice, we mentioned the heads of the contents of this work; and we shall now proceed to specify and animadvert on some particular parts.—A view of the objects sought by means of political society is drawn with great distinctness and precision in the ensuing passage. The experience of a state of nature, the author observes, must have taught men

> 'That physical inequality could not be destroyed without renouncing moral equality—that for the preservation of tranquillity independence was not absolutely requisite—that a public force must be established superior to private force, and that this public force could only flow from the aggregate of the whole collected mass of private force—that a moral person was wanting to represent the public will, and to be the guardian of its power—that the public force ought to be united to public reason—that the interpretation of laws, the establishment of the rights, and the regulation of the duties of each member of the community ought to be under its controul—that it ought to prescribe certain determined rules of government, calculated to maintain the equilibrium between the wants of each citizen and his means of gratifying them—and lastly, that by the liberty of acquiring every requisite for personal preservation and personal tranquillity, each individual might be amply recompensed for the surrender of his original independence.'

It is here laid down that a state can only be rich and happy in the single instance in which every individual, by the moderate labour of a few hours, can easily supply his own wants

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and those of his family.—What may be the case in the fertile and favoured climate of Southern Italy, we will not positively decide: but of this we are very certain, that from the sort of happiness here described, we of this country are effectually and inevitably debarred.

A salutary truth is disclosed in the subsequent paragraph; and in no country is it more important that it should be admitted and felt than in our own:

> 'Nothing is more easy than to commit an error in legislation, though nothing is more difficult to rectify, and nothing so destructive to a country. The loss of a province, or an ill-conducted and injudicious war, is the scourge of a moment. A fortunate opportunity, the victory of a day, may compensate for and counterbalance defeats for years; but a political mistake, an error in legislation, involves the ruin of a nation, and prepares its misery for ages of futurity!'

On the subject of the trade which has so long been an opprobrium to our national character, and which at length has been proscribed with merited ignominy, we are pleased to observe that our Neapolitan philanthropist imposes no restraint on his pen. We are more gratified, however, by no longer feeling the necessity of recurring to his or any other writer's arguments on this topic.

We insert the following extracts rather as specimens of the author's faculty of perspicuous statement, than because we coincide with him in opinion. The Spartan republic we indeed consider as an unnatural and ferocious polity. What it is supposed to have been is here stated in a very clear and concise manner. Regarding thus the Lacedæmonian regimen, we admit that, in the constitution prescribed for the rival power by Solon, we discover much to approve and to admire:

> 'A celebrated legislator entertained an antipathy to riches; banished gold and silver; prohibited commerce; established a perfect equality of conditions, and to preserve it, regulated marriage portions, and the succession of fortunes; destroyed property; vested the soil in the republic, distributing only a certain part to the father of a family for his immediate use; condemned luxury; attached a species of reputation and honour to frugality; degraded manufactures; directed the earth to be cultivated by slaves, and declared that the sole occupation of the free citizen should be to strengthen his body, and acquire the arts of war. He immersed the people in a military state of idleness, and to prevent its fatal consequences attended to their minutest actions. Their food, their meals, and even their public conversation, were objects of public animadversion, and determined by the laws. Martial dances, feats of activity, races and wrestling, and every exercise which could invigorate the body, or prepare it for the fatigues of war, formed the public and the principal amusement

of the people. Aware of the ill effects of an irregular commerce between the two sexes, he proposed a remedy so extraordinary as to seem rather to encourage what it was intended to prevent. The young women were to appear in public without veils, and they wrestled completely naked with the young men, on the idea that to take off natural impressions, the best method was to expose nature to the public eye. The event justified the theory. This republic became the admiration of the universe, and preserved its astonishing state of happiness and power for six hundred years.

'The legislator of a neighbouring state, separated only by a few leagues, thought very differently. His laws protected commerce; fostered the arts; encouraged agriculture; promoted labour, and introduced riches. Conscious of the natural sterility of his soil, industry was resorted to for its powerful assistance. Every citizen was obliged to exercise a trade; and the support of a father in his necessities was dispensed with, if he had not taught the son a mode of procuring his maintenance. The most respectable citizens had the care of inspecting the means by which each individual provided for his own and his family's subsistence. All were employed in the occupations which they had chosen, and the right of citizenship was bestowed on foreign artists, who came to settle in the republic with their families. Every thing in short favoured the arts. Idleness was punished as a crime; and even the women became laborious and sedentary, for the laws required it. This celebrated legislator was of opinion, he could prevent the corruption of morals, and secure the virtue of the female sex, in the midst of the riches which he studied to introduce, and of luxury, the consequence of riches, by the mere force of industry and labour.

'His republic, under the influence of these laws, became likewise happy, rich, and powerful, and though it could not preserve its laws for six hundred years, like Sparta, it had at least the singular glory of surviving the Lacedæmonian liberty.'

The Neapolitan jurist treats our own frame of government with some severity. He thus introduces the topic:

'It has been the fortune of this government to be more extolled than analyzed. Montesquieu did not perfectly understand it, and it is exposed to a danger which he did not foresee, and from which the other governments are wholly exempt. It may end in despotism, without any visible alteration of the constitution, and the people may one day become a prey to real tyranny without the loss of apparent liberty. This is the government of a nation which for a century has fixed the attention of Europe, it is the government of Great Britain, where a good prince is able to do nothing without the consent of the nation, and a bad one might betray it; where the voices of a majority of the representatives of the people do not always correspond with their wishes, and its supposed liberty has in some instances degenerated into licentiousness.'

In one material point, the author's remarks are erroneous. Montesquieu did well understand the theory of our government, it, and had a very considerable insight into its practice. who live under its protection cannot but acknowlege the ellencies which he has ascribed to it; and our power, alth, and prosperity form irresistible evidence of their rea- , The quarter from which it might apprehend danger did escape that penetrating writer; and he has confidently dicted that its fall will proceed from that source. The sent author is not nearly so well acquainted with its general icture, or its minute parts, as was the incomparable French sident. We were glad to find him disposed to be its censor her than its blind panegyrist, because we concluded that we re more likely to derive profit from the one than the other rse: but we were disappointed in the expectation, and have n unable to discover that much might be learned from the madversions of Signior Filangieri.

he author admits, however, that our constitution exhibits most perfect example of a mixed government. He ob- res that

> A mixed government may be said to be a government where the reign power or legislative authority is in the hands of the na- , represented by a public assembly, divided into three bodies—the esentatives of the people, the nobility, or partricians, and the g, who ought to exercise it in conjunction with them. The king e is in possession of the executive power, of every thing depend- on civil right or the law of nations; and he exercises this power h the most perfect independence.
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> Considering a mixed government in this light, there seem to be e inherent defects in its constitution. The independence of the cutive power on the body which ought to be its superior. The et and dangerous influence of the prince in the assembly of the ies which represent the sovereignty; and the instability of the stitution. Legislation ought not to change the essence of a con- ution; it should endeavour only to correct its defects. All the nciples, then, dependent on the relation of the laws to the nature this government should be directed towards a choice of the proper ns of preventing these three vices. But before we search for edies, we should be certain of the existing evils which they are ure.
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> In all the three different forms of government, which have been ady examined, the several proportions of power are distributed ording to their nature, and entrusted to the different hands, ich are intended to put them into motion.
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> These different hands being dependent on each other, their move- nts are uniform, and their directions are the same. Every lit- stream flows from one common fountain, and one master-wheel the whole machinery in motion. If the sovereign legislator in se several governments be not the executive instrument of the s, but trust the judicial authority to the magistrates, he has not- hstanding the public force near him, and consequently the proper

instruments of making his orders respected, and of ensuring the obedience of the magistrates to his legal dictates. In this mixed government, however, the only magistrate charged with the execution of the laws, is the individual who has in his own hands the whole force of the nation.—The sovereignty, or in other words, the assembly which represents the sovereignty, may enact whatever laws it pleases, but the person entrusted with their execution is both independent of it, and even more powerful than the sovereignty from which they spring. How alarming would be his negligence! how terrible his excesses!

'In a democracy the people, in an aristocracy the body of the nobles, and in monarchies the monarch, may dismiss the magistrate who abuses his power, despises the laws, and arbitrarily disposes of the lives and fortunes of the people. In this mixed government, where the magistrate is the king, and the sovereign is the assembly in which the king forms one of the three component bodies, who ought in conjunction to exercise the sovereignty, where does the right or power of removing him, or punishing him, reside?'

The same question may be asked with respect to a pure monarchy or aristocracy; in the latter, if the assembly misconducts itself, who shall visit it with punishment? The only constitutions, which ever provided for such extreme cases, have been that of Minos in antiquity, and that of Robespierre in our own days.

Signior Filangieri quarrels with the maxim of our law, that "the king can do no wrong." We had thought that, wherever this was promulgated, the concomitant position was also understood that, for every measure emanating from the prince, his ministers are responsible. Of this fact surely the writer could not have been ignorant, though he treats the present topic as if it were unknown to him.—The influence of the king in the Houses of Parliament is next objected to our constitution. In the present circumstances of the British State, this influence is truly vast; and perhaps it never was more strongly exemplified than at the moment in which we write: but it admits of checks and correctives, which continue to be supplied from time to time,—if not so as to obtain for the people all the weight in the legislature that is desirable, at least sufficiently to secure to us a degree of political liberty which has scarcely ever been equalled under any form of government.

It is farther observed by the author;

'In every other government, fear is the inseparable companion of oppression. In an absolute monarchy, when the prince is desirous of adding a fresh link to the chains of the people; breaks the compact by which he mounted the throne; and wishes to load his subjects with the burthen of intolerable taxes, he has the resentment of his people perpetually before his eyes, feels in imagination his throne shake under him, and sees the danger to which his very existence is exposed. But in a mixed government, the prince, free from any apprehension, may avail himself of the arm of the assembly, and violate, with impunity, the rights of the people. He knows the assembly will always be responsible to the nation, and that the popular indignation will not be directed against his own person. He seems then to have an instrument for his purpose, fewer obstacles in his road, and he may frequently succeed if, with the inclination, he has the necessary talents for the enterprize. It will be sufficient if he destroys not with his own hand the outward form of the constitution; if he respect the rights of the assembly, and if he be satisfied with making use of its influence, he may often carry his wishes into execution without any danger to himself.'

Under a free government, it is clear that the resources of a state can be drawn forth much more than under a pure monarchy: but is this to be considered as an evil, and as an objection to a system of liberty? Is it fair to presume that these resources are always to be misapplied?—It is here supposed that the king makes the assembly the instrument of establishing his power: but it is not stated by what means he is to induce this body to dishonour itself, to surrender its own power, and politically to become *felo de se*. We have had great differences in our parliament, on questions of colonial and foreign interest; when in these it has been wrong, it has for the most part adopted the mistakes of the nation; and when the public has become undeceived, parliament rarely holds out long against its decisive and unequivocal wish. It has been warmly disputed whether America was to be taxed by our legislature, and whether the relations of peace were to be continued with France; and different parties have espoused different sides: but has it ever been proposed to repeal our Great Charter the Bill of Rights, or the Habeas Corpus act, or to set the King above the law? The author's apprehension is unsupported by any ground or colour of reasoning. What the lapse of ages will effect is known only to Omniscience: but at present we see no well-founded reasons for the fears of the Neapolitan philosopher. The quarter whence more immediate danger is to be apprehended is that of our finances; and it may reasonably be dreaded that the pressure of the public burthens, by weakening the attachment of the people to the admirable fabric of their government, may render them less unanimous and less resolute than heretofore in defending it from foreign and internal attacks. We would fain persuade ourselves that this danger, also, is at a great distance: but we most devoutly wish that statesmen and public spirited individuals may be duly alive to it, and may employ their best powers and utmost exertions in warding it off for ever.

Chevalier Filangieri seems to think that, if James II. had been an able prince, and had acted with the crafty policy of Henry VIII. he might have succeeded in his nefarious projects. This supposition may be pardoned in a foreigner: but the different state of the British parliament and people, at the one and the other period, affords abundant matter for its complete refutation. In the age of Henry, the rights of parliament had not been defined and securely recognized. Henry also owed his atchievements to the nearly equal balance between the two great religious parties during his reign. These are differences of incalculable moment.

The last defect charged on our constitution is 'the continued fluctuation of power in the bodies that divide it.'—It is true that our history, since the Norman conquest, exhibits at one time the monarch as the absolute master of faithful vassals, and at another the great barons holding their prince in tutelage; next we contemplate the king, aided by the commonalty and the cities and burgesses, keeping the lords in check; then we see the commonalty of the realm annihilate for a time the two other orders of the state: but the Restoration again placed things in a tolerably fair equilibrium, while the Revolution adjusted these matters as nicely perhaps as human affairs will admit. Since that period, nothing of the fluctuation here mentioned has been witnessed: but each state of the realm has performed its appropriate and exclusive functions with an exactness and uniformity which, from the wise and dispassionate, will rather demand admiration than invite criticism.

We find it also remarked by Signior Filangieri, that

> 'The history of this nation is the history of the revolutions in its constitution, to which the temper and character of the reigning monarch have almost always given a temporary tone. Under a weak prince, from the poverty of his abilities, or the concurrence of embarrassing circumstances, the two houses have frequently usurped a portion of the royal prerogative. To a high spirited prince they have as often surrendered a part of their own privileges. From hence it may be collected, that the vigour of parliament has, in many instances, originated rather from some transient and accidental circumstances, than a solid and permanent cause. Were, unfortunately, any future descendant of the house of Hanover to possess great talents, without its hereditary virtues, without the benevolence and moderation which so eminently distinguish both the present monarch and every part of his family; were a tempestuous reign, exposed to a foreign war and internal commotions at the same time, to be followed by a reign of peace; and there should be no longer any obligation on the reigning monarch to treat his subjects with mildness, for the purpose of making them contribute more cheerfully to the vast burthens of their taxes; the bands of regal dignity might probably become more flexible, the parliament lose its vigour, and the throne become again omnipotent.'

Here again the ingenious writer betrays his ignorance of our history. The fact has been the very reverse of that which is here stated. The weakest of our princes have been those who have offered violence to our rights and liberties, as Edward, Richard II., James, Charles I., and James II.; while our ablest princes have manifested a deference to their parliaments.

The great security for our liberties is disclosed in the succeeding passage:

> 'These data being subscribed to, there will not be any inconsistency in the king having fixed and permanent tribunals, which without any separate personal powers may exercise the judicial power as an emanation of the royal authority. As the existence of these tribunals is not destructive of the nature of this government, there could be no impropriety in the prince being obliged to make use of them in his judicial capacity. He would not, though obliged to make use of them, lose any part of his prerogative, for in the exercise of that power, they would be always considered as the organs of his will. When the judicial power is separated in this manner from the executive, which is a separation in reality, though not in right, the king, notwithstanding the inviolability and the independence secured to him by the constitution, will neither be able to elude the laws, nor injure by any arbitrary means, the lives, the fortunes, or the honour of his subjects. Inviolable, independent, and out of the reach of any jurisdiction, as he is himself, the persons who represent him in these tribunals do not stand on the same ground. The decisions of one court may be examined and repealed in a superior court, and when an individual has been oppressed by a magistrate, he may accuse him before a competent jurisdiction, and procure his punishment. There is not any of these measures adverse to the constitution of the government, and the independence of the king will not be destroyed by them, but modified in favour of the public security.'

In what follows, the author touches a sore place in the British body-politic; and his statement calls for many reflections, which our limits will not permit us here to indulge:

> 'When the infamous traffic in the sale of the votes of the lower classes of the people shall be effectually suppressed; when abilities and integrity regularly influence their choice; and the laws exclude indigence, which is always suspected of venality, from the right of electing; virtue, supported in the public assemblies by hope, fear, and morality, will rally the majority on the side of the public interest. The nation will be truly free, and the possibility of an united assembly of spirited and independent patriots will be demonstrated.'

If we are obliged to this very intelligent and virtuous foreigner for his critical observations on our polity, we are not less gratified by the flattering terms in which he concludes this part of his labours; and we fully credit his declaration that 'in probing our wounds, his sole intention is their cure.'

We must not omit to observe that one of the improvements here proposed is to take from the crown the creation of peerages, and to invest the House of Lords with that prerogative: but the objections to this material and fundamental innovation are too obvious to require us even to hint at them in this place.

The author criticises the hypothesis of Montesquieu in regard to the active principle in different governments, and prefers to it the opinion of Helvetius. This, like many other controversies which have divided mankind, will be found to have arisen very much from misunderstanding, and to be little else than a logomachy. If we admit with the philosopher that the public acts of citizens proceed from a love of power, we think that it cannot be denied that the frame of the government materially determines the course and channel which this desire shall take; and that it is controuled in its operations by the principles laid down by the sagacious President.

Some acute and original observations are made in this work, on the defects in the prevailing habits and manners of nations, and on the best methods of removing them. The political effects of climates are also ably considered, and call forth very ingenious reflections from the author: the legislation of Peter the Great is treated with much severity; and the advantages which modern governments derive from their alliance with a divine religion are eloquently maintained.

On the subject of population, the Chevalier speaks in the same strain with all those who had preceded him: but our readers are already apprized what an able opponent their doctrines and notions have lately found in Mr. Malthus.

With regard to matters of political economy, it will be perceived that the author cannot very materially err, when we state that he recommends it as a leading principle to governments to let every thing take its own course, and interfere as seldom as it is possible. When the principal Lyonnese were asked by Colbert what he could do to serve their manufactures, their wise answer, since become a maxim in the science, was, "*laissez nous faire.*"—The subject of free trade is examined by the author very much at length, and the objections to it are luminously and satisfactorily refuted.

Signior Filangieri wrote before the new doctrine with respect to England, proclaimed in the recent state papers of France, and re-echoed by its publicists, had been broached; and he seems to have been an entire stranger to the discoveries atchieved by the new light in that quarter. He is decidedly of opinion that the rest of the world have a clear interest in Britain's welfare and prosperity. He remarks that

'Almost all Europe declared against her in a late war, and joined in the wish for the independance of her American colonies, and perhaps her national superiority, her glory, the extent of her power, and her exclusive patriotism, which nearly resembles that of ancient Rome, may have been the cause of the enmity or jealousy of many other commercial nations. Notwithstanding their prejudices, their enmity or their jealousy, Europe, far from being desirous of the ruin of Great Britain, ought to fear it. Particular and universal interests are so much blended with each other, and so strictly connected, that all the members of the great society of Europe, should be as apprehensive of any disasters that may happen to Great Britain, as Great Britain herself. If by any commotion a fatal change should take place in England, and the genius that decides the fate of nations should doom her to destruction; if weakened by a long and expensive war, and bankrupt from the extent of her national debt, her liberty should be exchanged for slavery; and she became either the prey of a foreign tyrant or a native despot, what would be the situation of the rest of Europe?'

The author concludes his observations on the subject of commerce with a very fine and pathetic address in favour of peace. Never was such an address more seasonable than at the present moment, but we fear that it never was likely to be less effectual.

Discussions with respect to the Bankrupt Laws, and to Taxes, close this respectable performance. The frauds pointed out in reference to the former are happily checked in the British code; while unfortunately every fact, and every doctrine, that can relate to the other, are too well known to British readers, to render it possible that they should derive much information on that head from an Italian author.

Though in these pages we have discovered little of original information, we are happy to admit that the love of truth, the zeal for the best interests of mankind, the sound doctrines, the correct notions, and the just ideas which they display, rendered the task of perusing them very far from irksome; and though we think that they are better calculated for the state of knowlege which prevails on these topics in Italy, than for a country of such higher attainments as we can boast, still it must be acknowleged that a very large class of men may derive much valuable instruction from the meritorious labours of the Neapolitan philanthropist.

Art. VIII. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.* Vol. VI. Part I. 4to. 9s. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

Since the Royal Society of Edinburgh has adopted the plan of publishing its Transactions in *parts* of a volume, the quantum of our labour in reporting their contents has in course been diminished: but it may happen, in like manner, that our satisfaction in announcing papers of importance may also be curtailed. In the present *livraison*, only three memoirs are inserted: but we shall find that one of them at least will attract by its importance, and gratify by its success.

The first communication is intitled,

A Description of the Strata which occur in ascending from the Plains of Kincardineshire to the Summit of Mount Battoc, one of the most elevated Points in the Eastern District of the Grampian Mountains. By Lieut. Col. Imrie, *F.R.S. Edin.*—The Grampians stretch from west to east across the northern parts of Scotland; and at some distance from the eastern termination of the chain, the river *North-Esk* takes its rise, and, in its course, cuts across one of the ridges, so as to exhibit the different strata of which the mountains are composed. The object of Col. Imrie is to describe the appearances which he discovered in ascending along the bed of the river; and this he seems to have done with great minuteness. The most remarkable circumstances, brought to view in the cleft through which the Esk flows, are the gradual elevation of the sandstone from the horizontal to the vertical position, and the manner in which the strata are intersected by whinstone.

Account of a Series of Experiments, shewing the Effects of Compression in modifying the Action of Heat. By Sir James Hall, *Bart.*—Our philosophical readers are doubtless acquainted with the grand outlines of the two theories that have divided the suffrages of geologists; according to one of which, *water* is considered as the grand agent in reducing the surface of the globe to its present state, while the other attributes the same effects to the operation of *fire*. Although there appear to be no other powers by which the great revolutions of nature could have been effected, yet each of the hypotheses presented difficulties of the most serious kind; so that, while it became easy for the contending parties to overthrow the speculations of their opponents, they were unable to adduce arguments of sufficient weight to establish their own doctrines. It has been objected to the *aqueous* theory, that the known properties of water will not permit us to consider it as an universal solvent; and even granting that this were the case, it would be impossible to accumulate, on our planet, a quantity of it that would be adequate to produce the alleged effect.—The objection urged against the *igneous* hypothesis was scarcely less powerful; for it is admitted that the properties, which many substances now exhibit, are totally changed by subjecting them to the operation of a high temperature, as is particularly the case with the carbonat of lime. In this state of the controversy, a modification of the igneous theory was proposed by the late Dr. Hutton of Edinburgh; by which he thought that the objections against it would be removed without the assumption of any improbable or extravagant principle. According to his idea, at the same time that the materials of our globe were exposed to the operation of a high temperature, they were also subjected to an immense degree of pressure: in consequence of the combined action of heat and pressure, effects might be produced different from those of heat under ordinary circumstances; and especially the carbonat of lime would be reduced to a liquid state, without having its carbonic acid expelled. It was allowed that this hypothesis did not involve any positive contradiction, nor seem to require the operation of any powers incompatible with the acknowleged properties of the agents employed: but still it wanted the support of experiment. Dr. Hutton, however, supposing that it would be impossible in the laboratory to imitate the great operations of nature, and probably also in consequence of his habits not being congenial to investigations of this kind, remained satisfied with the facility with which his hypothesis explained the phænomena of geology, without attempting to subject it to any more direct proof.

It was fortunate for the interests of science that Dr. Hutton declined this task; since it has now been undertaken by a gentleman, who, from his superior skill in practical chemistry, was more competent to it; and by whose unexampled assiduity in the prosecution of his object, a series of facts have been disclosed which not only establish the opinion that they were intended to support, but add materially to our knowlege respecting the operations of heat, and point out a method by which its powers may be applied to a variety of new and valuable purposes. Sir James Hall commenced his experiments in the year 1798, and continued them, at every convenient opportunity, until nearly the period at which his paper was presented to the Edinburgh Society. He gives a minute and perspicuous account of all his operations, describing the nature of the apparatus employed, and the results obtained; the whole composing a train of experiments which, both in the arrangement and the execution, are intitled to unqualified approbation. We must be contented with presenting to our

readers

renders a very limited view of them, since they occupy above 100 pages of the publication before us.

The manner in which the experiments were conducted was, to introduce the substance under examination into a tube of iron, or clay, closed at one end. At this end the body was placed; on it was rammed a quantity of baked clay, or some substance of a refractory nature; and then the open end of the apparatus was by different means rendered perfectly air-tight. It is obvious that, according to this arrangement, one end of the tube might be exposed to a great degree of heat, while the other remained perfectly cool; and on this circumstance depended the success of the experiments. When the tube was thus hermetically sealed, the end containing the substance to be examined was placed in the furnace, and heated until the apparatus was no longer able to resist the elasticity of its contents. Both gun barrels and porcelaine tubes were employed: when the former were used, the open end was welded, the materials being previously introduced, and kept cool in the breech. Another method was afterward adopted for rendering the barrel air-tight; viz. to pour on the materials, when placed in their proper situation, a quantity of the fusible metal composed of bismuth, lead, and tin, which is liquefied by the heat of boiling water. While the closed end of the tube was exposed to the heat of a powerful furnace, it was easy to keep the muzzle at such a temperature, that the metal retained the solid state, and the apparatus remained completely closed. When the experiment was concluded, the contents of the barrel were discharged by immersing it in boiling water.—Another mode, to which Sir James Hall had recourse, was to insert into the muzzle of the tube a quantity of borax, which, by exposure to heat, was vitrified, and thus completely secured the apparatus.

In these different procedures, modified in a variety of ways, according to the circumstances that occurred during the operation, Sir James Hall performed a great number of experiments on the carbonat of lime; and he found that it might be exposed to a very high degree of temperature, and yet retain the principal part of its carbonic acid. The results which he obtained were, on the whole, extremely satisfactory. The carbonat, which had been inserted into the tube in the state of a powder, was found to be agglutinated into a solid mass; and to approach, in its sensible properties, very nearly to the state of a compact limestone. In some instances, even a tendency to crystallization was perceived; and the body possessed so much of the texture of marble, as to be susceptible of a fine polish. When the most intense heats were applied which Sir

James was capable of commanding, the carbonat exhibited evident marks of having been in a state of fusion.

After having thus clearly proved that the effect produced by the joint action of heat and pressure was altogether conformable to the supposition of Dr. Hutton, it remained to ascertain the degree of force that had been employed, and to compare this with the powers exercised in the great operations of nature. By means of a valve, loaded with suitable weights, a calculation was easily formed; and the author was enabled to deduce the following conclusions: 'That a pressure of 52 atmospheres, or 1700 feet of sea, is capable of forming a limestone in a proper heat: that under 86 atmospheres, answering nearly to 3000 feet, or about half a mile, a complete marble may be formed: and lastly, that with a pressure of 173 atmospheres, or 5700 feet, that is, little more than a mile of sea, the carbonat of lime is made to undergo complete fusion, and to act powerfully on other earths.'

The conclusions to be drawn from this valuable train of experiments are in the highest degree interesting and important. They decidedly prove that Dr. Hutton's hypothesis is not inconsistent with the acknowleged powers of nature; and that calcareous substances, when subjected to heat and pressure, are acted on in the way which he supposed would be the case. We are not, indeed, authorized to assert that these events positively have taken place: but it is a great point to have ascertained the possibility of their existence.—We must express our earnest hope that Sir James Hall will not suffer his exertions to be suspended; he has opened a new field of research; and we know not any person better qualified to pursue the track which he has had the sagacity to discover.

A Geometrical Investigation of some curious and interesting Properties of the Circle, &c. By James Glenie, *Esq. A.M. F.R.S.Lond.* —We confess that we found this paper rather *heavy* (as the phrase is) during perusal, notwithsthanding the depravation of our taste, which often finds gratification in mathematical discussions of the most abstruse nature. It is not, however, our wish to discourage scientific men from the perusal of this memoir, the author of which is known to be an able mathematician; the same, we apprehend, who published a work called the Antecedental Calculus. The title of the essay adequately describes its object.

Art. IX. *The Works, Moral and Religious, of Sir Matthew Hale, Knt., Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench:* the whole now first collected and revised. To which are prefixed his Life and Death, by Bishop Burnet, D.D., and an Appendix to the Life, including the additional Notes of Richard Baxter. By the Rev. T. Thirlwall, M.A., Editor of the Latin and English Diatessarons. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Symonds. 1805.

Though our press teems with productions which profess to be original, and the taste of the age be in favour of novelty, it is scarcely to be supposed that volumes bearing so revered a name as that of Sir Matthew Hale will not engage some share of public attention. In addition to the productions of the learned Chief Justice, we have here his life by Bishop Burnet; as also the farther communications on the same subject by the celebrated Nonconformist Divine, Richard Baxter, and additions by the editor, with a dedication of the work to Lord Eldon. We cannot compliment Mr. Thirlwall, however, on his choice of a patron, since between the two learned sages we can discover little resemblance. Judge Hale confined himself to his Profession and his private studies; his bias ran in favour of the rights of the subject; he was a stranger to the court, and interfered not with political intrigues. In regard to acuteness, information, and professional integrity, we admit the similitude between these personages: but, whatever may be the case with the dedicator, we own that we are unable to trace it beyond these features.

In order to give symmetry to the present article, we are obliged to borrow the account of Lord Hale's birth and parentage from his R.R. biographer:

"Matthew Hale was born at Alderly in Gloucestershire, the first of November, 1609. His grandfather was Robert Hale, an eminent clothier in Wotton-under-Edge, in that county, where he and his ancestors had lived for many descents; and they had given several parcels of land for the use of the poor, which are enjoyed by them to this day. This Robert acquired an estate of ten thousand pounds, which he divided almost equally amongst his five sons; besides the portions he gave his daughters, from whom a numerous posterity has sprung. His second son was Robert Hale, a barrister of Lincoln's Inn; he married Joan the daughter of Matthew Poyntz, of Alderly, Esquire, who was descended from that noble family of the Poyntz's of Acton: of this marriage there was no other issue but this one son. His grandfather by his mother was his godfather, and gave him his own name at his baptism. His father was a man of that strictness of conscience, that he gave over the practice of the law, because he could not understand the reason of giving colour in pleadings, which as he thought was to tell a lie, and that, with some other things commonly practised, seemed to him contrary to that actness of truth and justice which became a Christian, so that he ithdrew himself from the Inns of Court to live on his estate in the untry. Of this I was informed by an ancient gentleman, that lived a friendship with his son for fifty years, and he heard Judge Jones, at was Mr. Hale's contemporary, declare this in the King's ench."

Wood, observes the editor, asserts that Hale subscribed the mous league and covenant, and appeared several times with her laymen in the Assembly of Divines. After having testi- ed his regret and his dissatisfaction at this step, he suggests ie following as the apology which might be urged in Sir latthew's behalf:

' Those, however, who are jealous of the reputation of Hale, ight offer in exculpation of his conduct, that before censure is pass- upon him it would be proper to take a sober and dispassionate rvey of the times and circumstances in which he was called upon subscribe to the Covenant. If he refused he was deprived of the ivilege of exercising his profession, in which he was advancing to rtune and celebrity by rapid strides. He could not, therefore, be pposed to take his measures, without revolving in his mind the ry serious alternative which was presented to his choice. He was it unwilling to abridge the prerogative of the king, and reconcile with the liberties of the people: he could feel no difficulty in ining with parliament to a limited extent; and whilst they still pro- aimed their allegiance to the king, and respect for his person and ithority, he consoled himself with the prospect of an amicable ad- stment between the Crown and parliament, and the establishment a constitution, that would balance the just rights of the king, ith the inalienable privileges of the subject. Of this the Covenant forded a satisfactory pledge. He saw in it an express acknow- dgement of the sovereign's rights, and the elements of national ace and concord. His love for his country, loyalty to the king, id attachment to a free constitution, would dispose him to give the ost favourable construction to an instrument which apparently led such important and happy consequences. The mere form and itward structure of the church, always appeared to him an object f a secondary nature. He affirmed, that a people were left at liberty choose for themselves such a model as was best adapted to their enius, their manners, and their temper. Neither the letter nor the pirit of the Covenant forced upon him a subscription to unscrip- iral articles of faith, nor even proscribed the use of the common- rayer and the liturgy of the Church of England. Though it was ot without a degree of violence to his conscience, he renounced the irisdiction of the bishop, yet he could discover ingrafted upon the rimitive constitution, superadditions of human policy, which mo- erated in a considerable degree his admiration of its excellency and urity. But in examining this article of the Convenant more cri- ically, his mind found a further relief from observing, that, 'the xtirpation of prelacy' was connected with, and qualified by a subsequent sentence, which was evidently inserted for the purpose of removing the scruples, and satisfying the consciences of the moderate churchman. The obligation to renounce only "what was contrary to sound doctrine and the power of godliness," allowed him a latitude of construction, which justified the most satisfactory conclusions in favour of his subscription to the solemn League and Covenant. This public act invested him with the privilege of attending the assembly of Divines, and taking an active part in their proceedings: he was no doubt prevailed upon to assist, by the hope of moderating the passions, and setting bounds to the extravagant projects of the violent zealots. Whilst he entertained this hope, he would occasionally attend; but when he found his endeavours were unavailing, and the temper of the assembly would admit of no control, he no longer shared with them in the responsibility for the wisdom or policy of their measures.'

It is but too clear that the Chief Justice took the more obnoxious *Engagement*, on which the editor makes these just remarks:

'The warmest admirer of Hale must admit that his subscription to an instrument of this complexion is a ground upon which his principles of attachment to a regal government may reasonably be questioned. For though it be true that Charles I. was no more, yet Hale was too enlightened and intelligent to conclude that there was an end of monarchy. The prince was alive, and unsubdued, who it might be rationally supposed, would make an effort to ascend his father's throne, and assert his legitimate rights. The tenor of this Engagement was a direct contradiction to the letter and spirit of the Covenant which he had taken. If then there be any meaning attached to words, and any sanction and value to the solemnity of an oath, by what train of reasoning can the conduct of Hale be justified? What else is implied in this Engagement than a solemn recognition of those principles upon which Charles was arraigned and condemned? What else than an unqualified rejection of a regal form of government, and an unfeigned approbation and indelible seal of fidelity to a parliament established without a king or house of lords! If oaths are things which men may allow themselves to take upon the ascendancy of a party, and considered only binding so long as interest or violence shall prescribe, then indeed the conduct of Hale will admit of an apology. I confess, with all my admiration of his character, and full conviction of his integrity, I feel myself at a loss for reasons to exculpate him in this instance from the charge of pusillanimity, selfishness, or versatility of principle. How much brighter would his character have shone, if he had followed the example of his learned friends, and with the same firmness returned the judge their answer! He would, indeed, have sacrificed his interest to his principles, but he would have displayed the virtues of suffering loyalty, and transmitted his name with unsullied lustre to an admiring posterity.

'It is with extreme reluctance, and the greatest deference, I have felt myself obliged to offer this opinion so unfavourable to his me-

> story. For though it would betray in the biographer an unpardonable ignorance of human nature, and reprehensible partiality for his subject, to hold him up an image of unspotted innocence, and unerring rectitude, yet the uniform tenor and general complexion of Hale's character, his acknowledged reputation for learning, integrity, and piety, of which he gave an instance in the exordium I have transcribed, all forbid us to suppose he was not tremblingly alive to the sanctity of an oath, and rather than wound the peace of his conscience, would not submit to the bitterest privations. That he acted from motives which acquitted him at the tribunal of his own conscience, it is reasonable to presume, though we have the misfortune to be unacquainted with them. Nor can this apology, with justice, be placed to an excess of candour, or an undue bias in favour of one who had the firmness very soon after to refuse the offer of a seat on the bench, and to tell Cromwell, when he asked his reasons, 'that he was not satisfied about his authority, and therefore scrupled to accept the commission.'
>
> 'To which the usurper is said to have made this remarkable reply: 'That as he had gotten possession of the government, he was resolved to maintain it. I will not be argued out of it. It is my desire to rule according to the laws of the land, for which purpose I have pitched upon you; but if you won't let me govern by *red* gowns, I am resolved to govern by *red* coats!'

With good reason, as we think, Mr. Thirlwall questions Burnet's statement that Hale was employed as counsel for the unhappy Charles. That he furnished the able and pointed objections made by the unfortunate monarch, when brought before the tribunal which tried him, rests solely on conjecture.

In the subsequent passage, the editor refers to a well known circumstance, which certainly derogates in no slight degree from the high reputation of this great judge:

> 'It cannot be supposed that our illustrious judge was exempt from the frailties of humanity. There is one circumstance recorded of him, which sufficiently proves indeed, that he had not risen superior to the superstitious credulity of the times. It almost surpasses belief at the present day, with what reverence and horror our forefathers looked upon nature, before the world was enlightened by learning and philosophy, and how they loved to astonish themselves with the apprehensions of witchcrafts, prodigies, charms and enchantments. There was not a village in England that had not a ghost in it, the church-yards were all haunted, every large common had a circle of fairies belonging to it; and there was scarce a shepherd to be met with who had not seen a spirit! The mind is overwhelmed in astonishment at the fact, that Sir Matthew Hale, the most pious, learned, enlightened, and humane judge, that ever adorned the Bench, should declare his *belief in witchcraft*, at the assizes held March 10th, 1664, at Bury St. Edmund's, in Suffolk, where he passed the sentence of death upon two old crazy wretches for that supposed crime, for which they were executed on the 17th of the same

same month. Before we venture to reproach his memory with extreme severity, we ought, in candour, to take into account the strong prejudices of the times in which he lived.'

Hale's cotemporary, Lord Chief Justice North, who was much his inferior in worth and learning, had greatly the advantage over him on the ground just mentioned; and a very interesting anecdote to this purport is here related, which is not less creditable to his address than to his discernment and humanity. In the sketch of Sir Matthew which was drawn by Roger North, we have always thought that we could discover some just observations, and several traits of truth, accompanied with exaggerations and misrepresentations.

We subjoin the editor's account of the contents of these volumes:

'The fruits of his studies are almost incredible, for which he was admirably qualified by a happy combination of natural endowments. But yet the Christian believer will attribute the success which crowned his labours to an extraordinary blessing from heaven, as the reward of exemplary piety, and an habitual address to the Throne of Grace; of a religious observance and employment of times set apart for sacred uses; of a conscientious application to his learned and honourable profession, and its uniform subserviency to the interests of religion and the promotion of human happiness.

'Of the two Discourses which begin this volume, the *Brief Extract of the Christian Religion* was one of his later writings; *The Cleansing of the Heart*, one of his more ancient; neither of which was finished by the author.

'His *Letters*, for the first time, are collected and printed together.

'The *Three Discourses of Religion* were published by his friend and admirer, Richard Baxter, who dedicated them to the "Honourable the Judges." Baxter annexed to this treatise the Judgment of Sir Francis Bacon, and an extract from Dr. Barrow on the subject. It is proper to remark, that these Discourses have been printed under a different title, which led Wood to conclude they were two distinct works. In Baxter's edition, it is distinguished by the title of "His Judgment of the Nature of True Religion, the Causes of its Corruption, and the Church's Calamity by Men's Additions and Violences, with the desired Cure."

'The tract of *Doing as we would be done unto*, though sufficiently distinct, seems to have been intended for the continuation of another work; and might, with propriety, be joined to his *Discourse of the Knowledge of God and Ourselves*.

'His own Prefaces will best explain the purport and use of the two Treatises which conclude the volume. Perhaps the last, viz. *Provision for the Poor*, will be thought the least interesting. It is, however, but short, and though upon a local subject, and adapted to the particular circumstances of his native spot, is founded in principles which have engaged the attention and exercised the abilities of the philanthropist in all ages, and cannot fail to gratify the curiosity of those who wish to learn the sentiments of so great a man upon a topic which involves the happiness of a large portion of suffering humanity.

'Some of the Tracts in the First Volume were written for the press; but the *Contemplations, Moral and Divine,* which compose the Second Volume, were published not only in their native primogenial simplicity, but even without his knowledge: these, accordingly, never received the finishing touches of the judicious author. This fact accounts for the inaccuracies which abound in the copies that are already extant. Every exertion has been used, and it is presumed with success, to ascertain the genuine reading, and convey the true meaning of the author. The subjects are common themes, but such as are acknowledged to be of the greatest moment in the life of man: as it may be said of things in the natural world, those which are of the greatest benefit, are the most obvious and familiar. The matter, however, of his Meditations does not partake of this character; for, as he was a man who thought closely and deeply upon every subject, so his writings, and especially those which cost him the least effort, discover a genius, an energy, and an originality superior to common writers. Though, as it has been suggested, he wrote these without effort, yet he had maturely digested the subject, "which, as a scribe instructed unto the kingdom of Heaven," he treasured up in his heart, and produced out of this treasure of his heart and the abundance of it. His style is admirably adapted to the matter. It is significant, perspicuous, and manly; his words are spirit and life, and carry with them evidence and demonstration. These writings are indeed invaluable, they are a transcript of the soul of Hale himself. They furnish a lively and striking representation of his learning, wisdom, piety, and virtue, which shone in his life with such transcendant lustre, and raised him to the highest eminence. If I might select one part in preference to another, it would be perhaps the subject of the Great Audit, where, in drawing the picture of the Good Steward, he is describing himself passing his solemn and awful accounts.

'In this volume will be found two treatises written upon the same subject; viz *Afflictions.* There is, however, little room for apprehension, lest the *latter* treatise may prove tedious to the pious reader who has perused the *former.*

'His *Meditations upon the Lord's Prayer* are truly excellent, and must leave a deep impression upon every mind which entertains a relish for sincere religion piety and devotion.

'His shorter *Meditations* were written when the author was upon his journeys, and at seasons in which he was much interrupted by the society of those about him.'

Mr. Thirlwall's observation in the next passage has been made before, but it well admits of being repeated:

'It has been considered as no small advantage to the cause of the Christian religion, that she has found, among her ablest and most zealous defenders, those who cannot be supposed to have espoused her interest, but from a conviction of her truth. Whenever the deist ventures to impute to the clergyman motives of selfishness, he is confounded and silenced by the names of Newton, Boyle and Locke. The learning, genius, independence, and disinterestedness, of these *laymen*, have always furnished a decisive answer to the objections of the infidel. May it not be esteemed a considerable advantage to the cause, to include the name of Hale in the list of these illustrious champions? His admirable sagacity, and strict impartiality in the search and discovery of truth, his care and diligence in considering and examining the reason and evidences of religion, all conspire to attach a peculiar importance to his testimony, and enhance its value, to give an additional confirmation of the truth to the believer, and check the rash presumption of the sceptic. Men who might peruse with a prejudiced eye, the writings of those whose profession immediately enjoins them to exert their abilities in the defence of the Gospel, may be prevailed on to pay them a serious attention, merely by the authority of one, whose natural constitution, learned profession, and worldly interest, raised him above suspicion; by the respect which the fame of his solid judgment and discriminating powers must command; and, above all, by the constant strain of piety, virtue, and usefulness, for which his life and literary labors were so eminently distinguished.'

Merited praise is bestowed by Mr. T. on the character of this great judge as drawn by Serjeant Runnington, which is here quoted. It is an able, and on the whole a faithful account of the venerable author whose compositions are here submitted to the public.

We must warn our readers against forming too high anticipations from these performances, which boast so illustrious a name. Let it be recollected that the dignified writer was not an author by profession, and that many of these productions underwent no revisal. Though he possessed an understanding sound and acute, and a large mass of useful information, we are not to expect in his works any traces of those rare attainments, those vast stores, and that mighty genius, which distinguished the compositions of a Bacon. In the pages here presented to us, we are not surprized by originality, nor charmed by ingenuity: but the reflections are important, and the expressions are forcible. The instructions which are communicated bespeak a mind addicted to observation, accustomed to discriminate, and habituated to precision and method; while they deeply impress the reader on account of the professional eminence, the experience in affairs of this world, the integrity and worth, of their illustrious author. This has been very much our own case in turning over these papers: we found that observations, which would have been trite in other compositions, were interesting in those now before us; and it every instant occurred to us, that the counsels to which we were attending were those of the assiduous, the upright, the pious, the unassuming Sir Matthew Hale.

Art. X. *A Defence of the Christian Doctrines of the Society of Friends, against the Charge of Socinianism;* and its Church Discipline vindicated, in answer to a Writer who styles himself Verax: in the Course of which the principal Doctrines of Christianity are set forth, and some Objections obviated. To which is prefixed a Letter to John Evans, the Author of "A Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World," and Strictures on the Eighth and Ninth Editions of that Work. By John Bevans, junior. 8vo. pp. 300. 5s. 6d. Boards. Phillips and Fardon, &c.

The doctrines and discipline of the Society of Friends, commonly called Quakers, have lately been matter of considerable discussion: but, as the opinions of this respectable body have been set forth in no authorized formula, it is not easy to arrive at any decisive conclusion respecting the fixed tenets of what may be termed the Quaker Church. Though we may ascertain the belief of the old Friends, and of some of the existing members of this fraternity, we are at a loss for sufficient evidence to mark the extent and limits of their faith.

As Mr. Bevans's book is sent forth without the sanction, or *imprimatur*, of *the Morning Meeting*, it is only to be regarded as the representation of an individual; to which, however honestly given, the assent of the body of Friends is not pledged; and it is possible that some of his brethren may not confer on it their entire assent. He produces numerous authorities to prove that the first Friends were not what we call Unitarians: but supposing him to have proved his point, are the modern Quakers bound to adopt the entire language and sentiments of the founders of their church? Is a belief in the Trinity, or in a threefold division of the Godhead, an indispensable article of a Quaker's creed; and is their doctrine of the *inward light* adopted by all, with no variance of interpretation? If their faith be definite and uniform, what restrains them from publishing their Creed *ex cathedrâ*? Till of late, we were led to believe that this body were united more by the benevolence and primitive simplicity of their system, than by abstruse speculative dogmas; and that they cautiously shunned those rocks of controversy, on which other churches have imprudently split. We intend not to insinuate that, under the garb of Quakerism, infidelity found shelter: but we apprehended that their profession of faith in Christ included that variety of sentiment, which commonly prevails among a society of unfettered believers. Though the majority of Friends may be what are called Orthodox, is Orthodoxy essential to Church Communion?

In opposition to the statement of Verax, Mr. Bevans, as an orthodox Friend, adduces numerous quotations from the writings of Penn, Barclay, Pennington, and Claridge, to manifest their belief in the Trinity, and consequently in the Divinity of Christ; and he asserts that ‘the first friends no more denied either the Trinity, or the Divinity of Christ, than Calvin has done.’ They certainly did not deny it, but they express their belief in terms which do not imply an adoption of the rigid trinitarian hypothesis. One specimen must suffice. Richard Claridge says of William Penn, that he “refused not the doctrine of the Holy Trinity, as it is declared in *the Scriptures of Truth*, but the notion of *three distinct separate persons*, and that he owned the Scripture Trinity of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost.” In the same passage, we are informed that William Penn “distinguished between the Scripture redemption and *the vulgar doctrine of satisfaction*.” These explanations will not convince a discerning reader that Penn was a staunch orthodox believer, but rather excite a contrary opinion.

In the chapter on the Scriptures, Mr. B. accords with his brethren in considering ‘the Spirit of Christ revealing itself in the heart of man, as the *primary*, infallible rule of Christians, and the Scriptures only as the *secondary*;’ and he asserts that from Hannah Barnard was not required an avowal inconsistent with this principle: but it is fair to ask here, as we have suggested before, if the *primary* rule be at variance with the secondary, or if ‘the Spirit revealing itself in the heart’ dictate a suspicion of the truth of certain parts of the testimony of the scriptural record, how is a Quaker to act? Mr. B. tells us that the Society to which he belongs do not believe in the organic inspiration of the Scriptures; yet he contends for their being *the only fit outward judge of controversies among Christians*. It is difficult, however, to conceive how that can be a *fit* judge *to settle* controversies, which is not supreme. If there be a higher tribunal, the parties will not be satisfied till the cause be removed thither.

Some of the principles of Hannah Barnard appear to be deistical, and we are not surprised that the Society should refuse to afford them their sanction: but the Friends seem to be embarrassed in their argument, by the admission of their *primary* and *secondary* rule. Barclay himself says that “the Scriptures are not the *principal* ground of all truth and knowledge, nor yet the *adequate* rule of faith and manners”; and on this admission how stand the proceedings against H. B.? What difference is there between a rule that is not adequate and an inadequate one; and if a person pleads the testimony of the inward spirit of truth in excuse for rejecting a confessedly *inadequate* record, how can the Quakers on their own principles proceed to judgment? When Barclay asks, “what should become of Christians if they had not received that Spirit by which

know how to discern the true from the false?" (in allusion
e contest about the genuineness of the second Epistle of Peter,
es, the second and third of John, and the Revelation,) does
ot afford a licence for scepticism in this respect? Mr. Bevans,
ever, will maintain that Barclay does not apply the terms
or *false* to the present canon of Scripture. In answer, it
nly sufficient to ask him whether the above mentioned
ks form a part of the Canon? Certainly the quotations which
makes from the fathers of the Quaker church do not fully
blish the point for which they are adduced.

The charges against Hannah Barnard are most strenuously
ended by Mr. Bevans; who regards her refusal to admit the
ine commands for the wars of the Jews on the Canaanites,
a denial of the divine mission of Moses and Joshua. H. B.
vever, we are told, did not dispute the facts, but only the
ine commands; in which she has been countenanced by
ny christians, in order to obviate the objections which infi-
s have levelled against this portion of the history of the
T. We have no inclination for becoming a party in this
troversy; and we shall only remark that it is somewhat sin-
ar that the Quakers, who are the most magnanimous op-
ers of war, should partly ground their ejectment of an
ividual from their communion on her refusal to attribute
of the most sanguinary wars ever waged to the express
nction of the Father of Mercies. They make a distinc-
n, we find, between the old and the new dispensation: but,
God is immutable, could he give orders under the former
ch would be inconsistent with his perfections under the
er?

Mr. B. succeeds better in his animadversions on Verax's
ification of H. B., when he proceeds to the charges, of her
nt of faith in some important articles of the N. T. Her
usal to acknowledge the miracles, and her expressed disbelief
he resurrection of Christ, amount to a proof of Deism,
ich disqualified her from being a preacher to a Christian
iety. Mr. B.'s vindication of the authenticity of the Gospel
tory, especially that part which relates the *miraculous con-
ion*, evinces much reading; and it shews that the Society of
ends endeavour to be critically acquainted with the sacred
ords. We recommend these pages to the consideration of
rax, and the introductory letter to that of Mr. Evans, who
accused of giving an unfair account of the Quakers: but, as
language of the Society of Friends on some of the points
e agitated is peculiar, the controversial reader will probably
d it difficult, in certain cases, to ascertain its precise im-
t.

Art. XI. *Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting,* &c. selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vol. X. 8vo. pp. 394. 8s. Boards. Wilkie and Robinson.

Some years have elapsed since this Society has presented any fresh fruits of its labours to the world; the last preceding volume having been published in 1799, as appears by our account of it in Vol. xxxi. N.S. p. 388. For a circumstance so unpromising, as indicative of declining zeal, an apology is attempted by the editor; who hints at the occurrence of 'impediments of a particular nature,' and at the tardiness of members in transmitting the *arrears* of their subscription, by which the Society is prevented from securing a regular fund for the various objects which it has in view. While he laments the loss of old correspondents by infirmity, distant removal, and death, Mr. Matthews requests gentlemen who are engaged in useful experiments, whether members of the Society or not, to communicate their experience, or their observations, on topics of improvement in agriculture, manufactures, and the most useful of the rural arts, in order that so long an interval between the usual publications may not again occur. We trust that this application to experimentalists will not be made in vain; and that the members of this society will feel themselves especially called to give a fresh stimulus to this institution, not only by forwarding their *annual guinea*, but by furnishing papers which shall reflect credit on their printed transactions.

This volume is introduced by an energetic eulogy on the late President of the Society, Francis Duke of Bedford; in which the editor endeavours to express their feelings of poignant regret at the unexpected death of this truly illustrious nobleman, and to portray his superior genius and striking character for the information of posterity. His agricultural exertions for the improvement of *soils* and *live stock*, and for the accommodation of the peasantry by building *cottages*, are here particularly recorded; and the summary of his virtues concludes with a reference to the singular fortitude which he displayed in his concluding moments. Mr. M. indirectly replies to certain fanatical strictures which were offered at the time, on the manner in which this nobleman met his end:

> 'Such was the exemplary ardour in all the varieties of rural dignity, which shone forth in the great character of our revered and lamented President: nor had those various occupations of his mind the least tendency to dim the lustre of his *academical* education, or the graceful accomplishments which were attached to it: for as no-

thing is more shining than genuine benevolence, so the amiable politeness and suavity of his manners were native, conspicuous, and universal. With equal justice may it be said, that his pursuits had no tendency to lessen his regard for *moral* maxims, or the higher obligations of a rational, dependent, and accountable nature. On the contrary, they most undoubtedly added much to a contemplative reverence towards the Author of his being, the Divine Source of all his powers, and of all the blessings which he wished to promote by the use of them. Of this last habitual attainment, which indeed is the perfecting feature of every valuable excellence, the mild serenity and even moral majesty of his countenance was a fair and expressive indication. It will not be deemed beside the province of a Society writer on the present occasion, to notice with pleasure so remarkable a part of an elevated and great character; although, perhaps, those topics with which we have *chiefly* to do might not be expected to lead to it. His *end* was remarkably instructive, by the *suddenness* of transition from high health to languishing weakness, and from that to the silence of mortality! But as he had lived a life of sobriety, temperance, and useful activity, so his closing scene was marked by correspondent composure, patience, and resignation to his lot! a state of mind commonly attendant on the last hours of a serious meditative man; and we trust happily superseding the necessity of any *human* intercession for final acceptance with his Maker!'

Among the articles here published, we meet with a paper by John Billingsley, Esq., intitled '*Remarks on the Utility of the " Bath and West of England Society," with an Account of the Progress of Improvements in the County of Somerset*;' which ought, from the nature of its contents, to have been placed at the head of the volume. It is stated that, since the establishment of the Society in the year 1777, such improvements have been effected on the Mendip hills, on marsh lands, and by means of inclosures, that the rental of the county of Somerset has been advanced at least 60,000l.; and these ameliorations are attributed in a considerable degree to the knowlege and spirit of enterprise diffused by this institution. In as much as it has given to country gentlemen a taste for experiment, it may claim merit; and it is certainly fortunate for those who are forced to take their land into their own hands, in order to increase their income so as to oppose the pressure of the times, that they have been induced, by the fashion of the day, to study farming as a science. That common farmers should speak with affected contempt of agricultural societies and publications, by means of which landlords are assisted in appreciating the true value of their estates, is no matter of surprise; and it is better to reply to these gentry with a joke than with argument, after the manner here recorded: 'A member of this Society was accosted by a farmer, who sarcastically remarked, that " He had been thinking whether the Bath Society had done harm or good ?" "Have you," said our friend; "why, then, you may rest assured that it has done good." "Why ?" rejoined the farmer. "Because it has led *you* to *think*, who seldom *thought* before!"

The letter of Mr. Billingsley being unfinished, the editor has supplied the omissions; in doing which he bears testimony to the spirited and extensive improvements made by this their Vice-President in the county of Somerset. Such an example merits imitation.

We shall notice the other papers in their order.

On the Food of Plants. By the Rev. Joseph Townsend.—From a variety of experiments with plants inserted in pots of different soils and composts, Mr. Townsend was induced to consider *carbon* as the chief pabulum of plants; and that the principal source from which they derive their nutriment is to be sought in the *vegetable earth*, the produce of animal and vegetable substances decayed. He notices, also, the utility of admitting air to the roots of plants, and in this view recommends frequent hoeing.

On reclaiming Waste Lands. By Mr. Wagstaffe.—This gentleman here records his success in bringing into profitable cultivation an acclivity consisting of gravelly and moory soil, broken into hollow spaces, in which water rested and aquatic plants grew.

On Drag Harrows, newly constructed. By Mr. Lewin Tugwell.—Mr. T.'s drag-harrows appear to possess an advantage over those in common use from the construction of their tines, as scuffles to clean and pulverize land, and they are well represented in the accompanying plate: but the letter, in which the inventor endeavours to explain their operation, is not most happily written.

Answers to a List of Queries inculcated by the Society, relative to the State of Crops, Farms, &c. in the latter Part of the Year 1800. with additional Observations. By Thomas Davis, Esq.—We are informed by the editor that this paper has been distinguished from other returns made to the queries proposed at the above-mentioned period, on account of 'the amplitude of its reflections and the importance of its reasoning.' It is on the whole a proof of Mr. Davis's accurate observation and sound judgment. He controverts the opinion 'that this kingdom is not able even in favourable years to feed itself;' and he calls on the country to seek her resource from herself in point of agricultural produce. An extended cultivation is recommended: but Mr. D. thinks that tillage culture will not

:arried to the extent of the demand, till *a minimum can be d on the price of wheat*, or till it shall bear a regular, steady, fair price. This want, however, of a fixed *minimum* is not only obstacle in the way.

n the Advantages of the Use of Oxen and Neat Cattle in Hus- bry. By Lord Somerville.

ractical Statement on the foregoing Subject, with Claim of nium. By John Billingsley, Esq.—Though Lord Somerville es the claim of premium in favour of Mr. Billingsley, he , after having stated the amount of the work which he has ormed by oxen,

In twenty years labour I have not lost one ox or steer, or ever :e a yoke or pair, by sickness, death, or accident. And I may ıer add, that so far from incurring any loss of value from work-cattle after their full growth, as is supposed to be the case with es, amounting to 25 per cent. or more ; my own experience, and concurring opinion of the Committee sent to examine our stock ıe month of June last, warrant me in declaring, that working-le, from three to six years of age, do actually gain at the rate of er cent. yearly ; the loss in my own case in twenty years, being ing !'

Ir. B. states that on a farm of 800 acres, with a team of six ı and a double furrowed plough, 385 acres have been ghed, and 291 acres harrowed, in the space of eleven ıths ; and he gives it as his opinion that, though oxen will answer in every situation, yet on all level soils, unincumbered ı stones, and where good pasture may be found for *summer* good hay for *winter* keeping, oxen, with the double-plough, preferable to horses.

n Account of the Produce of Ten Fleeces of Merino Wool, made Broad Cloth, from the Flock of Lord Somerville, with Remarks lanufacturers, &c. From Lord Somerville.—Of these ten :es, were made 14¼ yards of broad cloth (the usual super-breadth) : but, according to Mr. Billingsley's report, this ple was, in respect to *fineness of wool*, somewhat inferior to best superfine cloth. The editor adds that Dr. Parry and ers have been more successful than Lord S. The Merino : are represented to surpass other sheep in carcase as much n fleece. ' In regard to profit, therefore, this species must ease in public estimation ; and those who saw and ate any : of the carcases sold by the butcher, Brooks, must acknow-ge the quality of flesh and flavour far superior to any other .'

epert of a Committee appointed by the Bath and West of Eng- l Society to investigate the Claim of the Right Hon. Lord So-

merville to a Premium "for the greatest Number and most profitable Sort of Sheep."—The sheep-stock here noticed (consisting of the Merino breed, crossed with the Ryeland) amounted to 302 lambs, and 783 store sheep, total 1085. The produce of these were, wool 12 packs, 1 score, worth 446l.—216 store-sheep, sold for 409l. 3s.—132 fat sheep ditto and used, 238l. 16s. 2d. Letting rams 524l. 10s. These sheep were depastured on 188 acres, with the run of 33 acres of turnips; and the whole receipt, deducting 26l. for extra feed, amounted to 1592l. 9s. 2d.

Two Addresses to the Society, on the Subjects of improved Sheep, the Spanish Mixture, their Wool, and its Value in Superfine Cloth, &c. By C. H. Parry, M.D. F.R.S.—The first of these addresses contains some judicious strictures on the foregoing report, for which we must refer to the volume; only remarking that Dr. Parry, according to his estimate, makes the profit of Lord S.'s flock to amount to 9l. 1s. 3d. per acre. In the second address, hs communicates the result of his own experience with Merinos crossed with Ryelands, in the compressed form of propositions:

'I That the wool of the fourth cross of this breed is fully equal in fineness to that of the male parent stock in England.

'II. By breeding from select Merino Ryeland rams and ewes of this stock, sheep may be obtained, the fleeces of which are superior both to those of the cross-bred parents, and of course to those of the original progenitors of the pure Merino blood in England.

'III. From mixed rams of this breed, sheep may be obtained having wool at least equal in fineness to the best which can be procured from Spain

'IV. Wool from sheep of a proper modification of Merino and Ryeland, will make cloth equal to that from the Spanish wool imported into this country.

'V. The proportion of fine wool in the fleeces of this cross-breed is equal, if not superior, to that of the best Spanish piles.

'VI. This wool is more profitable in the manufacture than the best Spanish.

'VII. The lamb's wool of the Merino-Ryeland breed will make finer cloth than the best of that of the pure Merino breed.

'VIII. Should long wool of this degree of fineness be wanted for shawls, or any manufactures which cannot be perfected with our common coarse long wools, this can be effected by allowing the ram's fleece to remain on the animal unshorn for two years.

'IX. That though I have never selected a breeding ram or ewe on account of any other quality than the fineness of the fleece, this stock is already much improved as to the form of its carcase, comparatively with the Merinos originally imported.'

These remarks merit the attention of the breeders of sheep.

Essay on Manures (to which was assigned the reward of the first Bedfordian Medal, voted by the Society 1804). By Arthur Young, Esq., F.R.S.—This well arranged and ingenious essay, occupying 100 pages, is divided into two parts, the first treating of those manures which are dug or made on a farm *, the second of animal, vegetable, and fossil manures †. It is impossible, in the narrow space to which we are confined, to do justice to this dissertation, in which Mr. Young well combines chemical with agricultural facts; and his remarks on the Nature of Dung, on the Nature and Properties of the Substances constituting the Animal Manures, and on the Food of Plants, are well intitled to the attention of the farmer. On the last of these subjects, Mr. Young appears to have exercised a truly philosophical research; and the result of his investigation is that 'hydrogen, which is very beneficial in vegetation, is found in a very considerable number of substances which are used as manures, and that there may be some difficulty in finding a single one that does not contain, emit, or attract it.' Some pains are taken to decide the contest between hydrogen and carbon; and we extract this part of the essay as a specimen of the genius which it displays:

'Hydrogen gas, obtained from filings of iron by sulphuric acid, I have often found highly beneficial to vegetation. I do not assert that even in this case it is positively free from carbon, but the quantity is by far too small to permit the effect to be attributed to that substance.

'An observation of Fourcroy throws no inconsiderable light on this subject. "Charcoal," says that eminent chymist, "decomposes water, having a greater affinity with oxygen, than that has with hydrogen."

'This circumstance explains much of the difficulty which attends the insolubility of charcoal in water. Mr. Kirwan says, that the grand desideratum is to discover the means of rendering charcoal soluble in water. Dr. Ingenhouz says, that it is totally insoluble, and almost unalterable. But it is evident, from the observations of other chymists, that some bodies exist possessing this power. Potash has this effect, according to Mr. Thomson. And Mr. Davy and Senebier remark the same thing of pure alkalies, but not when combined with acids. Dr Darwin also remarks, that "carbon absorbs with great avidity all putrid exhalations. These consist chiefly of ammonia, hydrogen, and carbonic acid, and are the immediate products of the dissolution of animal or vegetable bodies. Hydrogen and nitrogen produce ammonia, which, combining with carbon, may form a hepar carbonis; and by thus rendering carbon soluble in water, may much contribute to the growth of vegetables." In another passage Senebier says, "he has found it insoluble in water; and that alkalies alone have the power of dissolving *some particles*." Mr. Davy remarks also, that "charcoal and water in a bottle give out slowly some heavy inflammable air." Here is the interesting circumstance: If the solution of charcoal in water, whether by time, potash, or contact with soils, be attended with the extrication of hydrogen gas, no wonder that charcoal should act as a manure.

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* Consisting of 15 sorts, '1. Marle. 2 Chalk. 3 Lime-stone and lime. 4. Clay loam and sand. 5. Burnt clay. 6. The ashes of paring and burning. 7. Yard dung. 8. The sheep-fold. 9. Pigeon's dung. 10. Pond and river mud. 11. Seed weeds. 12. Pond and river weeds. 13. Hemp and flax water. 14. Burnt vegetables. 15. Green crops ploughed in'

† Under these heads are included, '*Animal Manures*. 1. Night soil. 2. Bones. 3. Sheep's trotters. 4. Hair. 5. Feathers. 6. Fish. 7. Greaves. 8. Woollen rags. 9 Currier's shavings. 10. Horn shavings.—*Vegetable Manures*. 1. Wood-ashes. 2. Peat-ashes. 3. Coal-ashes. 4. Soot. 5. Peat dust. 6. Pot-ash waste. 7. Sugar baker's waste. 8. Tanner's bark. 9. Malt-dust. 10. Rape cake.—*Fossil Manures*. 1. Salt. 2. Gypsum.'

'I have now before me four and twenty tumblers of water, with plants growing through pierced cork floats. Different substances are added to each; among others charcoal, which evidently acts as a powerful manure. But the superiority over the glass which has no addition, is nothing in comparison with that of plants in another apparatus, in which hydrogen gas, from iron filings and diluted sulphuric acid, is thrown up to the roots every day. The superiority here is striking to every observer.

'That there is still some difficulty, must however be admitted. Chaptal observes, that gas extracted from a mixture of sulphuric acid and iron, holds more or less of charcoal in solution, because iron itself contains it. The desideratum seems therefore to be the application of hydrogen, free from carbon, as the means of really ascertaining to which substance the effect is to be attributed.

'In what degree hydrogen is contained in, or formed by other substances which act as manures, is an enquiry of great importance.'

Mr. Young concludes with offering it as his opinion that an age of experiments will be necessary fully to elucidate the subject of Manures.

On the Use of Tobacco-water in preserving Fruit Crops, by destroying Insects, and on the Use of the Striped or Ribband Grass. By Mr. Robert Hallett.—*A second Letter from Mr. Robert Hallett, on the Efficacy of Tobacco-water in destroying Insects, infesting Fruit Trees.*—The use of tobacco-water in destroying insects on trees is not new, as the editor observes: but, as tobacco is an expensive article, he suggests the trial of the infusion of some of our bitterest plants with the same intention. Striped grass is recommended as excellent summer food for cattle. In his second letter, Mr. H. tells us that he has employed the tobacco-water with complete success for ten years.

On employing the Poor in Parish Work-houses. By the late Benjamin Pryce, Esq.—It is a palpable misnomer to call those houses, ruses, in which the poor are congregated, *work-houses*, since tle or no work is done in them. According to a report this subject which we have elsewhere seen, the earnings the poor in work-houses amount on an average to 3s. 9d. head yearly, or to about *half a farthing* daily! Parish ficers, who are desirous of making these houses answer eir title, may derive assistance from this short communica- on; which is the result of much inquiry, and in which the inciples inculcated are rational:

> ' The robust and healthy poor who are able to maintain them- lves, should be admitted into workhouses with great caution, and considered as temporary guests only, to be removed as soon as ey can find employment elsewhere. The employment to be pro- ded for the inhabitants of these receptacles of poverty and imbecility ould be such as is suited to their strength and capacity: it should something easy to learn, and in which they could instruct or as- st each other. The articles should not be in much danger of being oiled by the inattentive or unskilful; and they should also as far circumstances will admit, (for such poor at least as are not likely remain in the workhouse) be something in which, after their dis- narge, they can be employed with advantage to themselves in their wn habitations or for masters in the same parish or neighbourhood.'

On feeding Stalled Cattle on Oat-Chaff, &c. By John Exter. he chaff here meant consists of unthreshed oat sheaves cut to chaff. To his process of feeding, Mr. Exter adds a recom- endation of the North Devon Cattle.

Report of the Committee appointed by the Bath and West of Eng- ad Society to survey the Farm, &c. of Mr. White Parsons *at 'est-Camel, in the County of Somerset, taken the 9th and 10th August*, 1803, *in claim of a Premium which was adjudged to m.*—This report does not admit of abridgment.

Reflections on the high Prices of Provisions in Times of Scarcity, d especially of Bread-Corn. By W. Matthews.—Though the marks in this paper are just, they have not the merit of no- lty.

Extract of a Letter from a Gentleman in Jersey to his Friend Glamorganshire on the Use of Vraic *as a Manure.* By J. anklin, Esq.—The mode in which this sea-weed is collected, d its ashes are applied as a manure, are here described: but e detail cannot be generally interesting.

On the most profitable Size of farming Cattle. By Charles ordon Grey, Esq.—That 'the smaller kind of animals come onest to maturity, and ever pay most for their food,' is the ctrine of this gentleman.

On Slating. By Mr. Lewin Tugwell.—A plate is annexed illustrate this new method of slating; in which the objects attempted are lightness, flatness, the prevention of rising by the wind, and economy; without the engraving, however, it cannot be particularly illustrated.

On the Utility of making Family Wines from several of our Garden Fruits; especially for benevolent Uses. Extracted from an Address on different Topics, to the Board of Superintendance. By W. Matthews.—As foreign wines are excluded by their high price from many families, Mr. M. recommends the cultivation of the black currant, (which he prefers to the white and the red,) and of vines in favourable situations, for the purpose, with the help of sugar, of making wine. In a letter annexed to this paper from Dr. Anderson, a certain degree of *acidity* in the fruit is represented as necessary to give made wines a zest; the mixture of spirits with wine is reprobated; and three years are stated as necessary to elapse before made wines are fit to drink.

Remarks on sundry important Uses of the Potatoe. By a Member of the Society.—The experiments here detailed relate to the making of potatoe-flour, which is obtained from the root boiled, dried, and ground; and which is said to keep longer at sea, if barrelled up, than wheaten flour. 100 lbs. of potatoes yield 25 lbs. of flour.

On Planting. By Thomas Davis, Esq.—Various directions are here given, respecting the kind of trees proper to plant; the age and condition of young trees fit for planting; the previous preparation of the land; the situations; the time of planting, &c.; and as these hints proceed from a person of experience, they will be deemed worthy of notice.

Calculations, shewing the Advantages to Lords of Manors, from the Practice of Leasing on Lives. By the Same.

On the best Periods for Leasing and entering on Lands, for Landlord and Tenant: in a Letter to a Farming Gentleman. By the Same.—The calculations and reasonings in the first of these papers are adapted to the feelings of the aristocracy; in the second, Mr. D. decides generally that Lady-day is the best for the landlord, Michaelmas for the tenant.

On the Management of Marsh Lands, Irrigation, &c. By the Same.—It is recommended, after having drained marsh lands, to keep them perfectly dry; to feed as hard as possible with stock of the cow kind, and to employ such manures as suit the soil. Mr. D. advises in irrigation not to attempt too much, but to proceed slowly, and under the direction of experienced judges.

A brief Statement of the Society's Conduct since the last Publication, respecting Bills of Inclosure.—Though the Society failed in their object of a General Inclosure Bill, they congratulate themselves on having succeeded in diminishing the expence attending the application to Parliament for inclosures.

On the Cultivation of the Poppy. By T. Cogan, M.D.—This curious and amusing essay cannot fail of attracting attention. Dr. Cogan shews that the white poppy (*papaver hortense semine albo*) has been cultivated to a great extent on the continent; that oil extracted from its seed is not only destitute of noxious qualities, but is equal to olive oil; and that the oil-cakes are a wholesome and nutritive food for cattle. The mode of poppy-culture is detailed; and it is hinted, as an important matter of inquiry, whether the poppy may not be cultivated with the double view of procuring *opium* from the rind and *oil* from the seed.

The remainder of the papers consist of

A Statement of the Society's Proceedings consequent on the Decease of its late President, Francis Duke of Bedford:

Account of Ploughing for the Society's Premiums in 1803:

Account of a successful Claim of the Society's Premium for a superior Flock of Sheep. By Wm. Dyke, Esq.:

Report respecting a successful Exhibition of Seedling Apples, for the Society's Premium. By J. B. Cholwich, Esq.; and

An Account of the Premiums and Bounties given by the Society, at the Annual Meetings of the last Six Years, with the Sum Total of the preceding Payments.

Though our notice of each paper has been necessarily concise, we hope that the report will enable our agricultural readers to appreciate the value of the contents of this volume.

ART. XII. *Descriptive Excursions through South Wales and Monmouthshire, in the Year* 1804, *and the four preceding Summers.* By E. Donovan, F L.S., Author of the "British Zoology," &c. Embellished with Thirty-one Plates of Views, Antiquities, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Rivingtons

FREQUENTLY as South Wales has of late been the object of our tourists and our book-makers, few readers of taste will be displeased to revisit it with so well informed and accomplished a guide as Mr Donovan. The scenery and antiquities of the country, its natural history, and the manners and customs of the people, have all been topics of observation and inquiry with this traveller; and though the remarks which he now communicates to the public are, for the sake of convenience of method, related as if made during one journey, we learn that they are, in fact, the result of repeated excursions into the districts to which they refer. Hasty views, therefore,—the common defect of tourists,—cannot be attributed to Mr. D.; or at least, as being given to us under these circumstances, we ought to be justified in considering his details as free from the imperfections of superficial acquaintance with the subject.

Mr. D.'s entrance into this part of Wales calls from him a glowing and animated tribute to the prowess and bravery of its antient inhabitants, the warlike Silures; and after having given a lively sketch of Agricola's proceedings in Britain, he states that

> 'This skilful general was determined to rule with a strong hand, as the immediate overthrow of the *Ordovices* for their temerity in cutting off a party of Roman horse that had been stationed to overawe them, not long before his arrival, proved sufficiently. He entered the country with an irresistible force, and destroyed every thing before him with fire and sword; if, indeed, the testimony of the historians who relate the event can be accredited, he nearly extirpated the whole people. This striking instance of Roman vengeance: the conquest of Anglesea: the defeat of the Caledonians: and passive obedience of the other states of Britain; all which took place within the course of the three first years of Agricola's government, must have convinced the Silures how feeble and ineffectual would have been their endeavours at such a period to burst the shackles of their servitude: they fell under the yoke of the Roman power, but they fell with honour: and submitted only, when their only safety was in submission. "The Britons," Tacitus fairly tells us at that critical epoch of time, "are conquered, not broken hearted; reduced to obedience, not subdued to slavery."

We can here discover no trace of that abjectness and imbecility which have been represented as characteristic of the Celts. Indeed, never was an extravagant paradox confidently advanced, that received less countenance from history.

> 'After traversing the road for a mile beyond Crick, we came,' says the author, 'to the foot of the gradual ascent, upon which the poor remains of Caerwent, the *Venta Silurum* of the ancients, stand.
>
> 'This place, which like Caerleon, flourished under the auspices of the Romans, was once a proud and important city: the great rival of Caerleon; or perhaps as Richard of Cirencester has suggested, at one epoch of time, even, the capital of the Silurian province.—But alas! such is the mutability of all human grandeur; such the inefficiency of all distinction founded alone on ancient greatness, the glory of Caerwent has passed away, in the bold and impressive diction of the poet,
>
> "like the baseless fabric of a vision;"

de of cities is no more: an humble village now occupies its nd mocks its memory, while it assumes the name of—*Caer-*

emorials of its former consequence have yet survived the ravaages; they yet exist in the early record of the historian; and more faithful vestiges of its ruins, that have long been known, at are still discovered daily—Huge fragments of its massive, of fallen columns, capitals and shafts of admired workmanship, lated pavements of singular beauty, and coins in amazing num-; all which, in the lapse of former ages, had been levelled with dust, and are now occasionally discovered within its precincts, a the removal of a few feet of earth, which has so long concealed n.'—

Under the dominion of the Romans, Caerwent received the name *Venta Silurum*; and arose, we may presume, to an eminent degree prosperity. The scite of the old Roman city occupies the higher und of a very gradual acclivity: surrounded in part by walls; or ices of masonry, the foundations of those which have fallen to cay; and appear altogether, to enclose an area of about a mile in rcumference. The outline of its external figure is nearly square, ith the corners rounded; and the great Roman high way, which passes through it from east to west, divides it into two parts, that on the north side is allowed to be rather larger than the other.

'The size and form of ancient Caerwent may hence be pretty clearly ascertained. From the remaining fragments of the walls some near conclusion may be also made of the manner in which the place was originally defended: of the buildings that formerly stood within the walls, the ruins, accidentally discovered at intervals, are assuredly too obscure to authorise the most remote conjecture. Caerwent, in its present state, requires a few words only to delineate: the area is disposed into fields and orchards, and includes a single church and parsonage house, with an inconsiderable number of small farms and cottages.

'Such is precisely the condition of modern Caerwent, and such nearly has been its state for the two preceding centuries, if we can rely on the evidence of Leland, who passed through this country, in the reign of Henry the Eighth. "Yt was," says that writer in the language of his days, "sum time a fair and large cyte. The places where the iiii gates was, yet appere, and the most part of the wal yet standeth, but al to minischyd, and torne. In the lower part of the walle toward a little valey standeth yet the ruin of a ....* stronge Within and abowt the waulle be a xvi or xvii smaul houses fo husbondmen of a new making, and a Paroche Chirch of S *Stephyr* In the town yet appear paviments of old streates, and yn diggin

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'* This blank was never filled up in the original M S. and neith *Stow*, nor either of his later annotators, have [has] supplied the de ciency. We may believe he intended to speak of the half bastions in south wall, or perhaps of the tower of Caerwent Castle, in a valley some distance from the wall.'

they finde foundations of great brykes, *Tessellata pavimenta, et numismata argentea simul et aerea*" *Itin.* v 5 *f.* 5.

'Leland attributes the decay of Caerwent to the increasing consequence and superior advantages of Chepstow, as a port in former times "A great likelihod ys," says this writer, "that when *Caerguent* began to decay, then began Chepstow to florisch, for it standeth far better as upon *Wy*, there ebbyng and flowing by the rage cumming out of Severn. So that to Chepstowe may come grete shyppes."

The walls which are still seen at this place 'are more perfect and more considerable, than the remains of any other similar Roman structure, either in Monmouthshire or the Principality.'

'The field below the southern wall, or rather adjoining to it, we observed in passing onward, to be abundantly bestrewed with those fragments of half smelted iron ore, which are known among the inhabitants of this place by the name of Roman cinders. These, when found in plenty in any particular situation, convenient for the purpose of the Roman smelters, are believed, and perhaps not without sufficient reason. to indicate the scite of some one of their ancient bloomeries; a conjecture, it will be highly pardonable to indulge, in the present case, at least when we consider the relative position of the field in which they lie, to an ancient station possessed undoubtedly by the Romans. The ore itself was not probably found near the spot, but the mineral riches of the county *is* [are] well known to consist chiefly in coal and iron; and the latter might be therefore brought at a comparatively small expence from the mines, only a few miles distant, in order to be smelted at the Roman works established on this spot. The appearance of these cinders, as they are termed, replete with a large proportion of very excellent metal, naturally excites a question in the mind of the observer, whether these were in reality the refuse of the Roman smelting works in the time alluded to, or not: if they were not designed to undergo any further process, with the view of extracting the ore they still contained, it testifies beyond a doubt, that to whatever degree of eminence, and skill, the Romans had arrived in other arts, that of smelting still remained in a state of infancy.'

Of the famous Caerleon, we have the following particulars:

'The flourishing condition of Caerleon at some remote period of time, is so well attested by the numerous memorials of its humbled grandeur, at this day visible, that it would be absurd to dispute the fact; and scepticism the most unpardonable to distrust entirely the evidence of those, who, but a few centuries ago, saw much more of these remains, than are at present to be observed.—Such was its extent, according to tradition, that the city, with the suburbs on both sides of the river, covered a tract of country nine miles in circumference; extending from the present town as far as Christ Church and St. Julian's, in a south and westerly direction. To this the doggerel metre of the old poet alludes,

> "The citie reacht to Creetchurch than,
> And to Saint Gillyans both :
> Which yet appears to view of man
> To try this tale of troth." CHURCHYARD.

'This space of ground is now converted into fields, besprinkled ith a few gardens and little cottages. The vast profusion of broken ricks, stones, and other building materials, that lie scattered in he earth at a considerable distance beyond the precincts of the present town, leave us no reason to doubt that the suburbs once extendd very far: whether to the limits which tradition mentions, is not quite so certain.—Great quantities of Roman bricks, coins, and jasper tesseræ have been discovered, according to Mr. Coxe, both at St. Julian's and Penros, but this proves very little: such remains may only mark the stations of some magnificent Roman villas, that were situated remote from the town. On the other hand, it is not to be forgotten, that the vestiges of ancient buildings are every where perceptible in the fields that lie on this side of the city-walls to a considerable distance; and it is even possible that the streets of the suburbs might have once extended thus far.'

While treating of this place, Mr. D. is led to speak of its renowned resident Arthur, of whose existence and fame he is a defender. The mention of him, indeed, by Llywarch Hen, and the other early British poets, seems to be decisive on the point. Llywarch calls him an Emperor, using the term apparently in a figurative sense, as indicative of the superior prowess of the chieftain. Mr. Gibbon's disquisition on this topic is in his best manner, and highly satisfactory.

Having lately very minutely noticed the ample information with respect to the interesting county of Glamorgan which has been given by Mr. Malkin *, we find nothing that is particularly worthy of attention in the pages now before us that has escaped the author's predecessor.

The adjoining county of Caermarthen, however, seems to have struck Mr. Malkin less that it affects travellers in general, and than it seems to have done in the case of Mr. Donovan. Its scenery, its monuments of past grandeur, and the recollection of celebrated and renowned personages who once illustrated it, rouse the enthusiasm of this author, and occasion him to speak of it in the language of rapture. Mr. Donovan is an able naturalist, but it appears that he does not deem it incumbent on him to be accurate in respect to geography and civil history. He every where dignifies Caermarthen with the name of city, while in reality, though complimented as the metropolis of South Wales, it is no more than a simple borough.—Thus advantageously does he describe his approach to the capital of the antient Britons:

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* See Rev. Vol. xlvi. N. S. p. 346.

'The eye wanders with an emotion of infinite delight across a charming extent of country, as our road winds down the hill towards the vale of Towey, in the midst of which the city of Caermarthen stands embosomed. Fancy had not anticipated too much from the imperfect glimpse the summit of those hills afforded of it. The vale unfolds a prospect of unrivalled beauty, placid, open, lovely, and luxuriant: combining the milder attributes of landscape with an air of dignity and features of magnificence. Such a scene might inspire the muse to a bolder flight of energetic diction; sure, we may exclaim,

"Some rural deity
Presiding, scatters o'er the unequal lawns
In beauteous wildness, yon fair spreading trees,
And mingling woods, and waters, hills, and dales,
And herds, and bleating flocks," — —
— — — — — — —
— — — "Yes, some sylvan god
Spreads wide the varied prospect; waves the woods,
Lifts the proud hills, and clears the silver stream."

'Caermarthen city, a small one truly, considered as the capital of South Wales, rises upon the ascent of a gradual eminence, at the foot of which rolls the full flowing stream of the silver Towey, a river that may be observed for miles from the hills we just descended; for after passing Caermarthen, it waves its course through a fine open country to the southward, which it fertilizes, and enlivens in a peculiar manner, till its waters fall into the Bristol channel, about ten miles distant.'

As the term *city* much better suits the lively and flattering description of the tourist, we regret that our duty obliges us to interpose the unsuitable correction which we have offered.

Though the famed Merlin, and the renowned Sir Rhys ap Thomas, and the legislator of Cambria, Howel Dha, illustrate the records of this county, the consideration of them is postponed by the present tourist, in order to pay the first tribute to a knight of the pen, Sir Richard Steele; and perhaps a fellow feeling will not permit us severely to arraign him for this violation of etiquette. He may probably be of opinion that the author of the *Conscious Lovers* bequeathed a more valuable legacy to posterity, than any of the other personages to whom we have alluded. The account has interested us, and it appears to communicate some new particulars.

'There is a certain share of celebrity attached to the city of Caermarthen, for having been, during a period of some years, the retreat of that eminent literary character, Sir Richard Steele, once the friend of Swift and Addison, and editor of the Spectator.

'Towards the close of an active life, devoted chiefly to his voluminous periodical concerns, and the services of the dramatic muse, he was compelled to retire, in no very easy circumstances, to a small estate in the vale of Towey, he had before acquired by his marriage

with

a lady of the Scurlock family. Here he fondly conceived his
bles would cease. In this retirement he hoped to be enabled to
ct together the wreck of his scattered fortune, relieve himself
the pecuniary embarrassments in which he had been involved
is indiscretions in the metropolis, and by pursuing a more judi-
management, and the aid of his splendid literary talents, he
ght it possible once more to rise superior to every difficulty, and
d the remainder of his life in a manner suitable to the rank he
before supported in society. But man is not *sole arbiter* of his
affairs; and one misfortune which, by the intervention of human
lence may be overcome, is oftentimes the prelude to others that
unconquerable. Even so alas! it befel poor Steele: ere he
d extricate himself from the pressure of his first difficulties, a
e paralytic stroke impaired his mental faculties, and at once
ived him of every resource he had anticipated from the exertion
is literary abilities. After this he found means to support
elf wirh the scanty residue of his property for some years, but
as now bending under the accumulated evils of affliction, and had
nerated into a lamentable state of idiocy, from which he was at
released only in the arms of death.

Thus terminated the career of Steele, one of the brightest lumi-
s of the eighteenth century: a man respected, caressed in the
of his prosperity, flattered by the unanimous voice of public
e: admired by all; and yet at last deserted!—But although
was precisely the truth: though his fortune, like his talents,
in the wane in his declining years, the biographers of Steele are
ormly incorrect in stating one particular: Sir Richard did not
n abject poverty, a reproach to that country which had never
held from him the empty recompence of popular approbation;
idence ordained it otherwise. His income, though small, proved
ient to support him in his infirmities, above the sufferings of
non indigence. He had a decent farm in the vale of Towy,
is a quarter of a mile from Caermarthen. To this day the
e he inhabited remains. Is is known by the Cambrian appel-
of *Ty Gwyn*, or the white house; and there it is pretty certain
vrote the Conscious Lovers, with some other pieces that fix the
dard of his reputation in the annals of dramatic fame.

In his latter years Sir Richard could afford to keep two men
ints to carry him about the town in his open chair' –

Steele lived to an advanced age: he expired in Caermarthen on the
of September, 1729. We may reasonably presume, that before
death he must have acquired some considerable accession to his
erty, because it is traditionally well known to the inhabitants of
city, that his remains were conveyed with great pomp from the
e in which he died to the church for interment. To increase
solemn grandeur of the ceremony, it was performed at night, and
ess than four and twenty attendants, each carrying a branch of
ted torches, formed part of the retinue in the funeral parade.
house in which he drew his latest breath was also his own, and
ill standing, being the same that was afterwards converted into
nn, well known to travellers by the sign of the Ivy Bush, till
within

within the last three or four years, when that name was transferred by Mr. Norton, the occupier, to another far more commodious, near the bank of the Towey river.'

We shall beg leave to pass over what is here said of the famed Merlin, and refer our readers to Ariosto and Spenser: but another memorable personage must not be wholly unnoticed:

' St. Peter's church, to which our curiosity had directed us in search of the burial place of Steele, contains the monuments of other persons who also deserve to be remembered with respect. The most distinguished of those is that of Sir Rhys ap Thomas. the Cambrian hero who so nobly assisted the duke of Richmond, to hurl the tyrant Richard the third from the throne of England. He met Richmond at Milford Haven, accompanied him with all his forces, which included a powerful body of cavalry, to Bosworth field, and in the hour of conflict proved himself worthy the epithet a favourite bard has complimented him with,—"*the shield and buckler of his country.*"—The Welsh maintain that he slew Richard with his own hands; that he plucked the regal diadem from his brow, and hastened to place it on the head of Richmond, ere the shouts of victory had proclaimed him King. Certain it is, that Rhys, in reward for his eminent services, was the first person knighted in the field of battle by Richmond, now Henry the seventh. Many honours were afterwards conferred upon him, likewise, by this sovereign. He became constable and lieutenant of Brecknock, chamberlain of Caermarthen, and Cardigan, Seneschall and chancellor of Haverford west, Rouse, and Buelt, justiciary of South Wales, and governor of all Wales, knight banneret, and knight of the garter, and one of the privy counsellors. Besides all this, he was offerd the choice of an earldom, either of Pembroke or Essex, that he might be himself ennobled, and transmit it to posterity. But to this he answered stoutly, that his "profession was arms, and the greatest honour that could be conferred upon a soldier, was knighthood: as for his son, or his son's son, and the rest of their posterity, if they were ambitious of advancement, his desire was, that for their greater glory, they should sweat for it as he had done."

' When we see this brave disinterested soldier adventuring his life and fortune to serve the cause of Henry the seventh, the heart recoils at the base ingratitude of his successor Henry the eighth towards the posterity of a man, through whose means alone, it may be literally said, he was elevated to the throne of England. Upon the most frivolous pretext imaginable, this worthless monarch caused Rhys Gryffith, the grandson of Sir Rhys, to be attainted of high treason, of which he was convicted, and being executed as a traitor, his immense possessions were alienated to the crown. This accusation was founded on a supposed conspiracy to depose Henry the eighth, and place James the fifth, king of Scotland, on the throne instead. Rice, about this time, thought proper to resume the old surname of Fitzurien, which had been in the family a thousand years before. This alone was construed into an intent to seize upon the

> principality of Wales. The assistance to be derived from Rice by the Scottish King, could be only proved by the concurrence of a pretended prophecy, which declared, that James of Scotland, with the red hand, together with the raven, should conquer England. The crest of Rice being the raven, no doubt remained that he was guilty, and he was condemned accordingly. Upon the restoration of Charles the second, the honour of knighthood was restored to the family with a trifling part of the estates, being all remaining at that time in the power of the crown. The lineal descendants of Sir Rhys, however, have now the honours of peerage, under the title of lord of Dinevawr.'

How did it happen that Grongar Hill, situated in the vale of Towey, has escaped the notice of the present inquisitive tourist?—This country, which so much arrests the attention of Mr. Donovan, furnishes his page with a piece of information scarcely less marvellous than the prophecies of Merlin. Having noticed the monuments which evince the residence of the Romans in the neighbourhood, he observes:

> 'Such memorials of the Roman age might be naturally expected, but what may in reality appear extraordinary, I am credibly informed, that in this part of Caermarthenshire there are many descendants of the Romans, who were stationed here between the first and fourth century of the Christian æra: they are acknowledged by the Welsh as such, bear Roman surnames, and though for the greater part consisting of the meanest class of peasantry, pride themselves not a little above the Britons on their illustrious ancestry.—One circumstance I may be allowed to mention: about eight years ago the Rev Mr. Barker, in his official capacity, granted a marriage license to Miss *Paulini*, of the parish of *Cûl y Cwm*: a family name we are not to recognize as one of Cambrian origin.—Neither shall we seek in vain at this day for a plebeian peasant, bearing the name of the great *Paulinus*, the leader of armies, the glorious supporter of Roman fame: who may proudly boast his lineage, while toiling for subsistence at the miserable drudgery of a daily labourer.—The Welsh appear to entertain no very favourable opinion of the moral integrity of those descendants of the Romans.'

A considerable number of engravings add to the value and interest of these agreeable volumes. Altogether, the performance is creditable to its author for its particulars relative to natural history and antiquities; and it proves that he possesses a mind very much alive to the beauties of rural scenery. Yet, repeated as have been his excursions into this part of the principality, they have not enabled him to render complete his accounts of the districts through which he passed. The deficiency may be easily seen by comparing his details with the most elaborate of the tours into South Wales, we mean that of Mr. Malkin. As far, however, as Mr. Donovan undertakes to describe, he performs his duty well; and no good humoured reader will peruse his volumes without being pleased, or without acknowleging his obligations to the author.

[illegible] instances, Mr. D. professes to correct the statements of former tourists; between whom and himself, in local matters, we cannot undertake to decide: but with respect to language we must observe that the present work is frequently open to criticism. In the extracts which we have made, marks of careless inaccuracy occur, even to the commission of false concords; the omissions of the relative *which* are innumerable, and often very harsh; and we also detect the vulgar use of the participle *laying* instead of *lying*.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1807.

METAPHYSICS.

Art. 13. *An Essay on the Principles of Human Action: being an Argument in Favour of the natural Disinterestedness of the Human Mind. To which are added, some Remarks on the Systems of Hartley and Helvetius.* 12mo. pp. 263. 5s. Boards. Johnson.

THE best judges on subjects of this nature have acquiesced in Dr. Hartley's mode of accounting for our social and benevolent feelings. We have anxiously endeavoured to ascertain the principles on which his doctrines are here combated, but we are constrained to own that they have eluded our grasp. We would not, however, discourage others from making an attempt in which we have been unsuccessful, because we uniformly encourage fair and liberal criticism on important theories; and had we been able to embody the objections of the author, we should have laid them before our readers. He writes with candour, and he states perspicuously the notions which he combats: but the reasoning which he opposes to them we are wholly unable to apprehend. Let the curious reader peruse the tract, and decide whether it is on the author's or on our part that capacity is wanting for metaphysical researches.

'Whatever,' says this author, 'may be the manner in which we acquire disinterested feelings, I do not think that much good can be done by tracing these feelings back again to a selfish origin, and leaving virtue no other basis to rest upon than a principle of refined self interest.'

We do not see any evil that is likely to arise from this solution of these phænomena: but the question in a didactic treatise is not what is the tendency of a doctrine, but whether it be true or false. The hypothesis here disputed represents the most perfect disinterestedness as growing out of absolute selfishness, and that the latter is refined into the former by moral cultivation. The strength of manhood grows out of infant weakness: but is it on that account rendered less estimable or less valuable?

The passages subjoined will furnish our readers with specimens of the author's manner; and also, we believe, with the outlines of his system and views:

'The scheme of which I have here endeavoured to trace the general outline differs from the common method of accounting for the origin of our affections in this, that it supposes what is personal or selfish in our affections to be the growth of time and habit, and the principle of a disinterested love of good as such, or for it's own sake without any regard to personal distinctions to be the foundation of all the rest. In this sense self-love is in it's origin a perfectly disinterested, or if I may so say *impersonal* feeling. The reason why a child first distinctly wills or pursues his own good is not because it is *his*, but because it is *good*. For the same reason he prefers his own gratification to that of others not because he likes himself better than others, but because he has a more distinct idea of his own wants and pleasures than of theirs. Independently of habit and association, the strength of the affection excited is in proportion to the strength of the idea, and does not at all depend on the person to whom it relates except indirectly and by implication. A child is insensible to the good of others not from any want of good will towards them, or an exclusive attachment to self, but for want of knowing better. Indeed he can neither be attached to his own interest nor that of others but in consequence of knowing in what it consists. It is not on that account the less natural for him to seek to obtain personal pleasure, or to avoid personal pain after he has felt what these are. We are not born benevolent, that is we are not born with a desire of we know not what, and good wishes for we know not whom: neither in this sense are we born with a principle of self love, for the idea of self is also acquired. When I say therefore that the human mind is naturally benevolent, this does not refer to any innate abstract idea of good in general, or to an instinctive desire of general indefinite unknown good, but to the natural connection between the idea of happiness and the desire of it, independently of any particular attachment to the person who is to feel it.'—

'I do not originally love my own particular positive good as a portion of general good, or with a distinct reference in my mind to the good of the whole; for I have as yet no idea of, nor any concern about the whole. But I love my own particular good as consisting in the first conception I have of some one desirable object for the same reason, for which I afterwards love any other known good whether my own, or another's, whether conceived of as consisting in one or more things, that is because it possesses that essential property common to all good, without which it would cease to be good at all, and which has a general tendency to excite certain given affections in my mind. I conceive that the knowledge of many different sorts of good must lead to the love or desire of all these, and that this knowledge of various good must be accompanied with an intermediate, composite, or indefinite idea of good, itself the object of desire, because retaining the same general nature: now this is an abstract idea. This idea will no doubt admit of endless degrees of indefiniteness according to the number of things, from which it is taken, or to which it is applied, and will be refined at last into a mere word, or logical definition. In this case it will owe all it's power as a motive to action to habit, or association; for it is so immediately or in itself no longer than while it implies a sentiment, or real feeling representative of good, and only in proportion to the degree of force and depth which this feeling has.'

LAW.

Art. 14. *A Practical Treatise of the Law of Vendors and Purchasers of Estates*. By Edward Burtenshaw Sugden, of Lincoln's Inn. 2d Edition. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Butterworth. 1806.

This publication displays not only diligence but considerable acumen; it indicates a mind that feels principle, and is able to follow it through a series of decisions, till it discerns where it has prevailed and where it has been discarded.—Its subject being of the practical kind, the work embraces various heads of the law, most of which are satisfactorily treated; and though, as is usual in law treatises, the composition is without pretensions, strength and clearness mark the conceptions of the writer. If, as we think, he sometimes controverts authorities and sometimes submits to them without reason, we readily own that wherever he appears *in propriâ personâ*, his observations are pertinent and forcible.

The practitioner will find this work a very convenient assistant; while the student will meet in it with numerous doctrines of the law correctly stated, and judiciously applied. It is said that *legere multum, non multa*, makes a man learned; and we are of opinion that *scribere multum, non multa*, is a maxim highly deserving of attention.

In order to give the reader an idea of the contents of this volume, we shall lay before him an analysis of those of one chapter; which treats 'of the title which a purchaser may require.'

Mr. S. first considers title as it arises from length of possession; he next examines what securities the vendee of an estate may insist on having produced: he then treats of the right of a lessee to see the title of his lessor, and that of the assignee of a term to see that of the original grantor: he next investigates the circumstances of insecurity in the property assigned to a wife for her jointure, which give a right to a vendee of other lands of the husband to have a fine levied on them; and finally he states the incidents which may occasion sixty years' possession not to furnish a good title. It is obvious that, in order to effect this, it must be adverse: but it is even possible, he observes, for an estate to be enjoyed adversely for hundreds of years, and be at last recovered; as in the case of an estate limited to one in tail, with remainder over to another in fee, and the tenant in tail to be barred of his remedy by the statute of limitations, it is evident, as his estate subsists, the remainder man in fee's right of entry cannot take place until the failure of issue of the tenant in tail; which may not happen for an immense number of years, but, whenever it does happen, the remainder man in fee may enter at any time within twenty years afterward. This is exemplified in the famous case of Tayle and Horde.

Ar

15. *An Abridgment of the Law of Nisi Prius.* Part I. Con-
ning twelve Chapters under the following Titles: 1. Account.
Adultery. 3. Assault and Battery. 4. Assumpsit. 5. Attorney.
Auction. 7. Bankrupt. 8. Baron and Feme. 9. Bills of Ex-
nge. 10. Carriers. 11. Common. 12. Consequential Damages.
9s. Boards. Brooke. 1806.

e learning and accuracy which distinguish the Treatise on Nisi
Law designated as the work of Mr. Justice Buller, but which
ated with Mr. Justice Clive, and the better arrangement of a
publication, do not render unnecessary an attempt like the present.
part only of the undertaking now lies before us, we shall content
lves with observing that the chapters which have been executed
edit to the judgment, industry, and information of its learned
iler. Of the particulars of the plan, and the merits of its
mplishment, we shall forbear speaking till we possess the entire
rmance.

16. *A Treatise on Conveyancing*, with a View to its Applica-
n to Practice; being a Series of Practical Observations, written
a plain familiar Style, which have for their Object to assist in
paring Drafts, and in judging of the Operation of Deeds,
distinguishing between the formal and essential Parts of those
eds, &c. in general Use, being a Course of Lectures, with an
ppendix of select and appropriate Precedents. By Richard
ston of the Inner Temple, Esq. Author of the Elementary
eatise on the Quantity of Estates, &c. &c. 8vo. 16s.
ards. Clarke. 1806.

hough the practitioner may find nothing in these pages but sound
nd may feel grateful for the forms which constitute the Appendix,
ill still be of opinion that his obligations would have been con-
bly enhanced, if Mr. Preston had bestowed some pains on
ting and arranging the matter which is here accumulated with-
any regard being shewn to method or language. When
lemen appear before the public, even as authors and com-
of Law Books, we see no reason which releases them
the observance of rules that are binding on writers in other
We conceive it to be incumbent on them to give to their
positions all the excellence of which the didactic style is suscep-
. Blackstone has set the example, and is himself a model in
respect; and in no works can method and perspicuity be more
rtant than in law treatises.—It is true that every practising
er must have recourse to all the authorities on which text books
ounded, and that to him it is not important how they are drawn
since they can serve him for little else than as Indices of re-
nce: but we still maintain it to be the duty of an author to ap-
h as near as he can to perfection in the kind of composition
h he attempts.

17. *An Elementary Treatise on Pleading in Civil Actions.* By
dward Lawes of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards.
rooke. 1806.

In this treatise, we meet with that successful arrangement, and that perspicuity of statement, which constitute the chief merit of performances of this kind; while many observations and hints are here given, which will excite the curiosity and stimulate the researches of the attentive and diligent student. The addition of the specimens of the different style of pleading at different periods was a happy idea, and will much assist the attainment of liberal and enlarged views of what is here termed a science, but which we think is more an art, we mean, Pleading.

Mr. L. gives us reason to expect from him a larger book on this subject. The present specimen makes us strongly wish that he may fulfil his engagement; since we have no doubt of his proving equal to this nice and intricate undertaking, and such a work is a great desideratum.—This Gentleman is not, we understand, the worthy and very deserving counsel of the same name, who is so well known and esteemed in the King's Bench.

POLITICS.

Art. 18. *Remarks upon "A Bill* [as amended by the Committee] *for promoting and encouraging of Industry amongst the labouring Classes of the Community, and for the Relief and Regulation of the necessitous and criminal Poor. Ordered to be printed 24th Feb. 1807."* By One of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lackington and Co.

It is strange that this Magistrate should hesitate in admitting so obvious a fact that "the Poor's Rates have been for many years in a state of increase." The complaint is not that the number of poor is greater than it was a century ago, which may occur on the ground of an increased population, and yet no evil be felt, but that the proportion of the poor's rate to the rental is much higher than it was formerly; and no doubt can be entertained of the truth of this statement. Persons who have given much attention to the subject are thoroughly convinced of the existence of material defects in our poor laws, and particularly as they do not provide against the evils of an immoral education. Here, however, the Justice of Peace is at issue with the framers of the New Bill; for he is fearful of the *sad* consequences of teaching the poor to read and write: but if he compares that part of the empire which has a free school in every parish, with that which leaves the poor in total ignorance, and if he be open to the instruction which experience dictates, he will find that less immorality, less licentiousness, and less idleness prevail among the educated Scotch than among the illiterate Irish. The Tory Dr. Johnson had different ideas on this subject from the remarker before us; he observed that writing and reading is nothing when it ceases to be a distinction: that a laced waistcoat is a distinction when worn only by a few; but when all wear laced waistcoats it ceases to be so. The clauses respecting *settlements*, for equalizing county rates, and for reducing the poor-rate in *trading* and *manufacturing towns*, at the expence of the respective counties, require much deliberation; and we trust that the hints which the Magistrate has suggested will meet with due attention. We most cordially agree with him that the number of *Alehouses* is a serious evil, and that they are the sources of disorder and crime among the lower classes.

Art. 19. *The State of the Case*, addressed to Lord Grenville and Lord Howick. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

Whether the causes assigned for the late change in administration were merely ostensible or otherwise, it led to a very singular discussion in Parliament, which called forth all the energy, not to say the acrimony of party. Some were animated by interest, others by fear, and others by a conviction of the importance of the subject to the welfare of the Empire. Of the last we believe the number to be considerable: but we apprehend that, in the present corrupt state of society, that number is surpassed by the multitude of alarmists and court sycophants. We have been concerned to read the intemperate expressions which were employed in the late debates, and still more hurt at the unwarranted insinuations conveyed in some late addresses. Can any man say that the case of Ireland does not require the assistance of some able political physician; or can he honestly assert that the relief, which the late Ministers meditated to extend towards her, was calculated to endanger the Protestant religion? As Protestants, we ought to be more liberal, and as Britons more just.—The writer of the present pamphlet does not enter into the merits of the Catholic claims, nor examine the advantages which were likely to accrue from the system projected by the late Ministers: but he accuses them of a dereliction of principle; of betraying the confidence of the King; and of entering a Manifesto against him on the minute-book of the Privy Council; in consequence of which, the most marked reprobation of their conduct is here expressed, and the necessity of the pledge required of them, and even of their being driven from office, is maintained. As an expedient for removing them from office, the pledge, whoever advised it, was a dextrous measure:—by the mere proposition of it the late Ministers were thrown on the horns of a dilemma; and whether they consented or not, they were sure of being thrown out, since by consenting they must lose the confidence of the country, and by refusing must forfeit that of the King. By this project, however, it cannot be said that the King was a gainer. His late Ministers had consented to withdraw the Catholic bill altogether; and had they on any future occasion proposed a similar measure, His Majesty was at full liberty again to express his displeasure. The more, therefore, we survey the grounds on which the *Outs* and the *Ins* stand, the more we are persuaded that the Catholic bill is not the sole bone of contention.

This writer carries his enmity against Lord Grenville so far as to accuse him of contriving the prosecution and impeachment of Lord Melville, in order to remove his dangerous rival for the office of prime minister:—but, if we recollect accurately, the proceedings against Lord Melville originated in the Reports of certain Commissioners, to the appointment of whom Lord G. was not in any way accessory. In perfect union with his condemnation of the late ministers, and dislike of *their* parliament, this writer speaks of a dissolution as a *popular measure.*

Art 20. *Reasons for not making Peace with Bonaparte:* to which is added a Postscript. By William Hunter, Esq. Second Edition, corrected. 8vo. pp 119. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1807.

Though a devoted admirer of the late Mr. Pitt, this writer entertained a favourable opinion of the administration which a sort of political hurricane has recently overturned. His sentiments on our internal politics are manly and liberal; and we concur with him in all that he says in commendation of the abolition of the Slave Trade, and of the new regulations of our military system: but we cannot unite with him in censuring the American Intercourse Bill, or the pacific disposition displayed towards the United States: necessity was the parent of the former of these measures, while obvious policy prescribed the latter.—Mr. Hunter was hostile to the late negotiation, but he bestows liberal praise on the manner in which it was conducted on our part; and his remarks on this subject bespeak an impartial and well informed mind. Various other topics are introduced into this pamphlet, on which we differ *toto cælo* from Mr. H.; but, admitting his views to be correct, the composition is altogether creditable to the writer.

Art. 21. *Cursory Reflections on the Measures now* [lately] *in Agitation, in Favour of the Roman Catholics of the United Kingdom.* By a Loyal Irishman. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1807.

Accustomed to lend a patient ear to all parties, we have listened with attention to this 'loyal Irishman;' whose loyalty, however, is accompanied with furious violence, a most unbecoming temper, and very indecorous language. Weighing impartially all that this angry writer has said, we do not find ourselves shaken in the opinion that liberal, mild, and gentle treatment towards religious parties is equally our duty and our sound policy. We have read of religious establishments having been subverted, which emoluments and privileges aggrandized, and which penalties and exclusions fenced and protected; but we know not any instance in which a religious establishment has suffered injury from too great leniency being shewn to separatists. The experience of modern times is altogether in favour of this important practical proposition. Alas! How unfortunate that, in this age of improvement, the moment in which we should most anxiously study to unite all in the cause of the country should be selected in order to rekindle and inflame religious animosities; and that there should be *statesmen* who, without a blush, could have recourse to these dangerous means in order to serve party purposes! The enlightened of the day ought to discountenance the unworthy and mischievous stratagem.

It was the opinion of Mr. Burke that the Popery code formed one consistent whole, and that it must stand or fall together. Those who applauded his foresight in regard to the French Revolution, and the confederacy which was formed to resist it, deny his authority on the present subject, though they well know that it was one to which he had given long and anxious attention; and certainly it is not one more difficult and large than those in which they admit his decisions to have been well founded His doctrine with respect to the Popery code embraces a comprehensive proposition: but we are convinced that it admits of clear demonstration; and the present is perhaps a reasonable period for undertaking it.—Because catholic emancipation is not less wise and politic than it is just, we do not say that on that account it should be carried into effect: it is not sufficient that the measure be a fit one, but the public must be in a degree ripe for it, before it can be safely adopted: it is not enough tnat the food be wholesome, the state of the system for which it is designed must be taken into consideration.—This writer imputes all the vices of antient popery to the catholic profession of our days: but in its worst times, it could hardly display a more unchristian and intolerant temper than is manifested by its present accuser.

Art. 22. *Admission of Papists to hold certain Commissions in the Army,* &c. The Substance of Mr. Deputy Birch's Speech in Common Council, March 5, 1807. 8vo. 1s. Asperne.

We applaud this worthy deputy's zeal for protestantism; and we should be sorry to be in the least degree inferior to him in this respect: but the question is whether his zeal be directed by knowlege? We would hint to him that it is not a light matter on which he has committed the metropolis of the empire. The suit of three or four millions of the subjects of a free country is surely intitled to some respect. If the capital has an interest that the church should be secure, so has it that every part of the united kingdom should be tranquil and flourishing, and remain free from disturbance and commotion. Would it not be wise that in this question there should be no popular interference? It is a state question, and should be left to the private and public councils of the King. Perhaps our affairs would not materially suffer, if Mr. Birch were to withdraw his aid:—but, if he *will* counsel the legislature on this subject, we would ask him, were the Popery Laws enacted on account of the religion, or the adherence of its votaries to the abdicated royal family, which was hostile to our constitution both civil and ecclesiastical? Does he believe that, if the catholics of that day had been as well disposed to the throne as they now are, these laws would ever have been passed? Because a protestant king should have it in his power to reward military merit in a few catholics, does he in his conscience believe that our protestant church will be in the least danger? If the king appoints a few catholic generals and admirals, does he think that the whole army and navy will instantly become catholic, and that we shall acknowlege the Pope and set up the mass through the kingdom? Surely we are as likely to submit to the Grand Lama, and to have the religion of Mohammed or Bramah established among us. If it be the fear of Popery that occasions us to refuse farther liberty to the catholics, never was a reason more destitute of foundation urged in favour of the continuance of any grievance. We advise the worthy deputy, and those who think with him on this subject, to consult their fears less, and their reason more.

Art. 23. *Short Remarks upon Recent Political Occurrences*; and, particularly, on the New Plan of Finance. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1807.

The loose manner in which this pamphlet has been penned appears from the very paragraph with which it opens. The writer asserts that from the late cabinet 'had been excluded all who had been connected with Mr. Pitt:' but the reverse of this fact was palpably the case; since it included those with whom he had been longest and most intimately connected. Surely Lords Grenville and Sidmouth, and their respective friends, come more within this description, than the members of his last unfortunate and inglorious administration; which, with the exception of Lord Melville, embraced no one who had belonged to his former cabinet.

The Remarker accuses the same persons of representing in too unfavourable a light the state of the country, at the period of their entrance into office: but he admits that it was extravagant to describe them as reposing on a "bed of roses." He also allows that the aspect of the continent was discouraging; and 'a gloom,' he acknowleges, 'spred itself through the nation:' but he contends that this was occasioned by the feeling entertained at the loss of Mr. Pitt. He asserts that the disasters of the continent were not under the controul of our ministers: but will he inform us whether Mack was not placed in the chief command, and the Archduke removed from the scene of glory, through the interference of the Cabinet of London? He contends that Mr. Pitt was a great master of the science of finance. The system of politics followed by Mr. Pitt rendered indispensible financial devices such as are here extolled: but we do not believe that we owe them exclusively to the genius of Mr. Pitt. His merit is confined to that of proposing, upholding, and guarding them with firmness and ability. All these discoveries in finance, perhaps, the country has more reason to lament than to applaud; since they seem to have no other effect than to enable ministers to increase to its utmost point the load of public exactions. The observations of the author on the financial plan of Lord Henry Petty, which is here stated to have been ably and perspicuously opened to the House of Commons, are candid, ingenious, and deserving of attention.

NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 24. *Naval Anecdotes*; or a new Key to the Proceedings of a late Naval Administration. 8vo. 5s. C. and R. Baldwin. 1807.

Much remark has been occasioned by the alterations in various departments of the naval administration, which were introduced by Lord St. Vincent; and the Admiralty Board and the Navy Board have been put at issue on some important questions. The present pamphlet seems to come with authority from the latter office, in defence of its own conduct, which had been impeached, and the vindication of which was elsewhere denied.—It would be impertinent and preposterous for us to attempt any interference in these professional and official discussions: but we may truly observe that some of the points are very essential to the welfare of our navy; and that the reasoning and facts adduced in this publication amply intitle it to attention, while its temperate spirit (under circumstances certainly of provocation) is equally worthy of praise.

POETRY.

25. *All the Talents!* A Satirical Poem in Three Dialogues.
· Polypus. 7th Edition. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Stockdale junior.
7.

ave and *fool* are the pretty words which contending factions w on each other with the most profuse liberality; and if we : the account which each party gives of its opposite, we must ir of finding either talents or virtue in the world. Poets, when ited with political enmity, mistake the bludgeon of calumny :he rod of rhimes;' and, overwhelming public characters with the st abuse, they hope that it will pass current as mere pungent . Polypus would have us believe that he is a man of no party, that his poetic indignation and approbation are merited by the ts on which they are bestowed: but few readers, though they be amused by *his talents*, can think that he weighs the talents of s in a fair scale. For one set of statesmen he has a smoaked listorting glass, and for another a lens which throws a Claude aine tint. Never, in short, was partiality more strongly mark- or hatred more indiscreet and unrestrained. The high claims e late Ministry, and the prodigality of flattery employed by friends, might present a topic for satire; and had Polypus l in his Muse, he might have indulged a good-humoured laugh: in our opinion, he has suffered too much gall to flow from his He classes Whigs with Bankrupts, Spendthrifts, and Traitors; e would insinuate that all who profess whig principles must be at heart. He "out Herods Herod" in some of his caricatures; hough in most of his verse and his prose he displays considerable s, if he did not write the name under some of the portraits, it l be difficult to find out for whom they were intended. More- Polypus is not always original, for he often copies Pope, and im suffers satire to run riot. In the quantity and quality of his , also, he follows the example of the author of the Pursuits of ature.

26. *Elijah's Mantle.* A Poem. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale junior.

iese lines have been widely circulcated and much praised. The iliment to Mr. Pitt is well managed, and the idea in the last a is beautiful: but the effect is injured by the harsh alliteration cold corse,' which might be easily removed by reading *pale* .

' Yes, honour'd shade; whilst near thy grave
The letter'd sage, and chieftain brave,
The votive marble claim;
O'er thy cold corse—the public tear,
Congeal'd, a chrystal shrine shall rear
Unsullied as thy Fame.'

27. *The Uti possidetis & Status quo:* a Political Satire. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale junior.

his squib on the late Ministry throws its fire with brilliancy and . The satire is so playfully managed, that the very objects of not be offended.

Art 28. *Ins and Outs;* or the State of Parties. A Satirical Poem. By Chrononhotonthologos. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapple. 1807.

Not so highly seasoned with the *sauce piquante* of scurrility as "*All the Talents*," and consequently not so likely to run through many editions; because the people, in deciding between contending satirists, always give the preference to the most acrimonious and ill natured. If harmonious numbers and gentlemanly satire could procure for a poet any notice, this writer with a long name might count on some readers: but we suspect that the taste of the public is too much vitiated to relish any others than high dishes. Perhaps, however, the politics of this poem, compared with those of Polypus, may promote its sale. We give one specimen:

'*Author*. While Britain sees her proud insulting foe
In triumph ride, and threat her overthrow,
And smiles at danger, as she oft has smil'd,—
'*Friend*. *Three millions of her sons* unreconcil'd—
'*Author*. Curse on the tongue, the slave of party zeal,
Foe to its king and recreant to her weal,
That strives to sow dissention o'er the land,
And damp the ardour of her patriot band!
'*Friend*. I love my king, and church, and state revere;
Not *Llandaff* loves the cause of truth more dear;
Not *Grenville* loves the constitution more,
Or *P———l* the Treasury's valued store.
I love my country's rights, and freedom love,
Fonder than *Fox's* dying voice could prove,
Fonder than *Mulgrave* loves to rule the board,
Fonder than *Canning* sighs to be a lord,
Or *Duigenan* longs with *Grattan* to dispute,
Or *Johnstone* loves his stipend to be mute.
But when such heads aspire to guide our isle,
Forgive me, Britons, if I love to smile!'

The satirist concludes with an unfashionable wish for peace; which, though formerly deemed a blessing, is now in very little request.

Art. 29. *Bonaparte*. A Poem. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

The melancholy fate of the virtuous Palm induced this writer to express his rhiming indignation against the disturber of Europe; and he thought that if he could not harrow up Bonaparte's soul by a recital of his enormities, the catalogue would at least help to keep alive the public indignation against him. The shades of D'Enghien, Pichegru, Toussaint, Palm, of the Turkish prisoners at Jaffa, of the negroes at St. Domingo, &c. are made to pass in solemn march before him; and then the poet adds,

'Read if you can, unwarp'd by rage,
The records true of every age,
The grave historian or the sage,
Describing man,

And see unmatch'd your crime-stain'd page,
Since time began.'

This kind of stanza is apt to tire; and as the poet is often very negligent, the reader will wish that he had vented his rage in a narrower compass.

Some of the stanzas, to use his own words, are 'sad, sad, sad.'

Art. 30. *The First Book of the Iliad of Homer translated into Blank Verse*; with Notes: by P. Williams, D.D. Archdeacon of Merioneth, &c. small 8vo. pp. 77. 3s. sewed. Lackington and Co. 1806.

Dr. Williams observes that 'an attempt to translate the Iliad into English verse after such men as Pope and Cowper will, he is aware, *astonish* the Learned World:' but he informs us that the occasion of his undertaking the task was the amusement which he found in the exercise, after he had retired from the laborious employment of a public school; and his motive for publication was that, in comparing his performance with the celebrated translations of Pope and Cowper, he thought that it had sufficient characteristic merit of its own to induce him to revise and prepare it for the press. In the work, 'his great endeavour,' he says, 'has been to avoid the ascititious finery of Pope on the one hand, and on the other the "*robes antique*" of Cowper: and in their stead to represent the noble bard in a characteristic English dress'; 'he hopes that the style will not be found bald, nor the verse tame and uncouth;' and he says that 'it hath been attempted, though the attempt be desperate, to imitate in every particular the ease and divine simplicity of the great original.'

Such is the language used by the translator; the undertaking is a bold one; and a man must be possessed of many enviable attainments to prosecute it with success. In the examination of the specimen before us, we contemplate an effort which it would be impossible to accomplish; an endeavour is here made to give a translation at once versified and literal: but there are no two languages whose idioms will admit of their being so rendered; and in consequence therefore of the difficulties with which Dr. W. was thus contending, his style is often obscure, his expressions are unappropriate, and his phrases unnaturally inverted. The chief object of a translation is to render into one language the sense and spirit of another, for the benefit of persons who do not understand the original; and in the attainment of this object, Dr. W. has in a great measure failed, since a mere English reader will often be at a loss to ascertain the meaning of the author. In the execution of the version, however, the Dr. manifests great care and industry; and considering the insurmountable difficulties which opposed him, it shews that he possesses no mean abilities. The following are the first 20 lines:

'Sing, Goddess, Peleus' son's accursed wrath,
Which caus'd the Greeks innumerable woes,
And many a Hero's soul to Hades hurl'd,
Illustrious Souls! but the bare corse expos'd
To dogs, and all the ravenous fowls, a prey;

[Lo thus Jove's purpose was fulfill'd] e'er since
The day, that Agamemnon, King of men,
And great Achilles, were by strife disjoin'd.
'What God involv'd them in that dire debate?
Latona's son, and Jove's: for, at the King
Enrag'd, he made a foul contagion spread
Thro' all the host; and many a soldier died!
For Atreus' son had Chryses roughly us'd,
Apollo's Priest; who to the nimble ships
Of Greece had come, his daughter to redeem,
And, with that view, had gifts immense convey'd,
Holding Apollo's garland in his hands,
On sceptre bright with gold: and all the Greeks
He pray'd, but chiefly Atreus' noble sons,
The two great leaders of th' united host:'

This translation may be serviceable to young students in assisting them to understand the meaning of the original; and the critical notes which accompany it will be perused by them with profit. In this respect, it will answer the end of the author; who, in a part of his preface, says that it is chiefly intended for the Novice in Greek learning, and that 'the comparing of different translations with each other, and the original, may tend, if not to ascertain the author's exact cast and expression, yet probably to form the young scholar's taste and improve his judgment.'

At the end of the book, are 'Conjectures concerning the Origin of the Poetic Fiction that the summit of Olympus was the place where the Gods assembled in Council;' in which the translator supposes that the appearance of the Aurora Borealis was the origin of the fiction in question.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 31. *Cases and Cures of the Hydrophobia*, selected from the Gentleman's Magazine: containing many curious and interesting Accounts relative to that alarming Malady. 8vo. 2s. Stace. 1807.

The compiler of this pamphlet has probably been induced to undertake the task, in consequence of the reports that have lately prevailed respecting the frequency of this dreadful malady. As a scientific work, however, it can be intitled to very little commendation; anonymous papers in a magazine not being sources from which a medical man expects to acquire any very important addition to his professional knowlege. Yet the publication is not without some value, as exhibiting, in a connected view, the state of opinion on a subject in which the welfare and feelings of the community are intimately concerned. We think that it may be inferred from this compilement, that credulity on medical topics is on the decline. Half a century ago, specifics poured in from every quarter, many of them sanctioned by the highest authority, which appear to have acquired universal repute: but we believe that it may be confidently affirmed that if a second Dr. Mead should appear in the present age, he would not venture to propose liverwort as an infallible remedy for Hydrophobia.

Art. 32. *An Examination into the Principles of what is commonly called the Brunonian System.* Introductory to a Series of Aphorisms upon Life and Mind, Health and Disease; with an Attempt to form a more simple and philosophical Arrangement of Diseases, upon the present state of our Knowledge of the Animal Economy. By Thomas Morrison, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. 8vo. 4s Boards. Highley.

The late Dr. Garnett was well known to have been one of the most zealous defenders of the Brunonian hypothesis; and in his posthumous work, intitled *Lectures on Zoonomia*, he employed it very extensively in the explanation of the phænomena of the animal œconomy. The publication of that book appears to have been the principal motive with Mr. Morrison, for giving his sentiments on this subject to the world; since, conceiving that the hypothesis was founded in error, and might lead to dangerous practical conſequences, he was anxious to counteract these evils by exposing its fallacy. In pursuance of this intention, he proposes to consider the Brunonian system in four points of view; endeavouring to prove, in the first place,

'That its principles are not founded upon the true laws of the animal economy;

'Next, That they are contradictory and inconsistent in themſelves;

'Thirdly, That they are not sufficiently general in their application to Diseases;—and,

'Finally, That they may lead to dangerous errors in practice.'

Mr. M. commences his strictures by some remarks on the new terms adopted by Brown, especially the one so frequently employed, *excitability*. He endeavours to shew that Brown himself had not a perfectly clear conception of its import, and that his disciple, Dr. Garnett, is liable to the same imputation: but he alleges a more serious charge against the Brunonians, for he attempts to prove that, in the idea which they have given of excitability, they have confounded cause and effect: they explain this word as being synonimous with life or vital principle, while they affirm that life is the result of powers acting on the excitability. After the numerous controversies to which this subject has given rise, and the various explanations and illustrations of it that have been attempted, it cannot be expected that we should be able to throw much light on it in the narrow limits to which we are restricted. We shall only remark that we conceive the terms *life* and *vital principle* to have been used in at least as vague a manner as *excitability*; being sometimes intended to express the effect of the animal powers, as exhibited in the living body, and at other times the cause of these effects, the irritability of the muscular fibre and the sensibility of the nervous system. The Brunonians appear to have used it in the latter sense: but they have exhibited in a striking manner their inattention to the phænomena of vitality, in confounding the actions of these two distinct systems, which had been so clearly discriminated by many of their predecessors. This spirit of generalization we regard as the prominent error in the hypothesis, and as a principal cause which must render it of little value, either in the speculations of the physiologist or the practice of the physician Notwithstanding the genius of Brown, it appears to us sufficiently evident that he had not a distinct conception of the whole of his hypothesis; and that he did not attach a definite idea even to its fundamental propositions. An inconsistency of this kind is pointed out by Mr. Morrison in the account which is given of this same property, excitability, a circumstance which lies at the very foundation of his system, and on which its merits must in a considerable degree depend. We are told that the nature of excitability is altogether unknown; and that therefore we are not to conceive of it as a thing to which measures of quantity can be applied, although the poverty of language may occasionally render such expressions necessary: but can any one have paid the slightest attention to the subject, without being convinced that not merely the expressions, but the very substance of the whole theory, consist in ascertaining the increase or diminution of this property; and that its boasted simplicity entirely depends on reducing all diseases to a scale of quantity?

Mr. M. farther attacks the Brunonian hypothesis on the manner in which the exciting powers are supposed to produce the two states of direct and indirect debility, which in his opinion involves a palpable contradiction. We are first informed that, by diminishing these powers, the excitability or vital principle is accumulated; whereas we are afterward told that, by the progressive removal of the exciting powers, the vital principle is gradually diminished, until it is at length extinguished. The idea of the Brunonian indirect debility appears to this author equally paradoxical. In this condition of the system, the vital principle is supposed to be accumulated in the highest degree, and yet it is exhausted by the most trifling exertion; so that the more of life the body possesses, the less able is it to perform the actions of vitality.

The vague and ill defined manner, in which the term *stimulus* was employed by Brown, affords another striking instance of his tendency to premature generalization; in fact, the word *stimulus*, as used by this sect, means nothing more than action or effect; for what farther resemblance can be traced between the operation of lightening, arsenic, food, and alcohol, all which are referred to the head of stimulants?

Although we think that this treatise exhibits marks of ability, it has not that decided excellence which can enable it to make any great impression on the public mind. Indeed, our opinion is that the popularity of the Brunonian doctrine is rapidly declining; and though it may continue to catch the attention of the student by its boldness and simplicity, the absolute impossibility of reconciling it to the phænomena of disease must be an insuperable bar to its reception by the experienced practitioner.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *A Letter to Samuel Whitbread*, Esq. M.P. containing some Remarks on the Poor Laws, leading to a Description of the peculiar Poor Situation of the Hamlet of Mile-End New-Town, Stepney. By the Rev. John Cottingham. 8vo. Pamphlet. 1807.

After some general observations on the imperfection of our System of Poor Laws, Mr. C. proceeds to corroborate the statement of Mr. Hale, (see an account of his pamphlet in our last Number, p. 331) respecting the distressed situation of the Hamlet of Mile-End New Town; the features of its misery being without a parallel, and admitting no prospect of relief within itself. It may be presumed that this singular case will not be overlooked by the Legislature, and that some means will be devised to alleviate the hardships which so greviously oppress this district.

Art. 34. *The Principles and Regulations of Tranquillity*; an Institution commenced in the Metropolis, for encouraging and enabling industrious and prudent Individuals in the various Classes of the Community, to provide for themselves, by the Payment of small weekly Sums, in such a Way as shall secure to each Contributor, or to his Widow and Children, the Benefit of his own Economy. for receiving the Savings of Youth of both Sexes, and returning the same at the Time of Marriage, with Interest and proportionate Premiums thereupon; for enabling Parents, by the Payment of small Sums at the Birth of their Children, to provide Endowments for them at the Age of 21 Years; and also for other useful and important Purposes, particularly for concentrating and applying the Exertions of the Liberal to the Benefit of the Indigent, so as to prevent the Unworthy claiming, or the Impostor abusing, their Benevolence and thus affecting the gradual Abolition of the Poor's Rate, whilst it increases the Comforts of the Poor. By John Bone, Author of an "Outline of a Plan for reducing the Poor's Rate, &c. in a Letter to the Right Honorable George Rose, M. P." 8vo. pp. 99. 3s 6d. Asperne. 1805.

So ample a title fully informs the reader of the nature of the pamphlet: but the subject is too great to be treated in the cursory way of which our plan, as it respects tracts of this sort, will admit. The zeal, activity, and diligence, displayed by the writer, are highly commendable; and persons who direct their attention to the important matters here under consideration, whatever they may think of the scheme, will meet with hints and observations which are well worthy of consideration.

Art. 35. *The Speech of Randle Jackson, Esq* addressed to the Honorable the Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to consider the State of the Woollen Manufacture of England, on Behalf of the Cloth-workers and Shearmen of the Counties of Yorkshire, Lancashire, Wiltshire, Somersetshire, and Gloucestershire. Published by them from the Short-hand Copy of Mr. Gurney. 8vo. pp. 79 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1806.

This speech is professedly in behalf of that description of manufacturers named in the title, whose case, from their having been for three or four years under Mr. Jackson's '*paternal* guidance and direction,' is supported with considerable zeal. With the interests of his clients, however, the speaker combines views of a public nature.

While the Cloth-workers and Shearmen complain of the Gig-mills and Shearing Frames, on account of their effect in throwing them out of employment, their advocate enlarges on the depopulating tendency of these machines; on their being injurious to the fabric, the former by over stretching, and the latter by knibbing or cutting holes; and he calls on the legislature to interpose its authority in preserving the reputation of the woollen manufacture, which is in danger, according to his representation, of falling a sacrifice to private avarice. Mr. Jackson contends that the reputation of the great staple manufacture of the country ought not to be surrendered, without check, to the self interested views of the manufacturer; and he recommends it to the legislature to support and invigorate the system of searching and sealing. In the last place, he offers his protest against the abolition of the system of apprenticeship.

The credit of Great Britain in the foreign market must certainly depend on the excellence of its fabrics; and, disapproving of '*the modern cant*' as he calls it, 'that men's own interest is a sufficient security for the observance of right,' Mr. Jackson urges the policy of placing the manufacturer under wholesome regulations.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 36. *A Defence of the established Protestant Faith*, preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary, Newington Butts, in the County of Surrey, October 19, 1806, being the Sunday following the Interment of the late Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of St. Asaph; with an Appendix containing a Sketch of the Life of the Bishop. By Robert Dickenson, Curate and Lecturer. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

Did the preacher intend, by this discourse, to convince his audience that he had caught the late Bp. of St. Asaph's mantle? If this was his design, he has rather overacted his part. Dr. Horsley, with all his zeal against sectaries, would not have been so indiscreet as to assert, with Mr. D., that 'the Church has shewn a peaceable disposition *in permitting* sectaries to follow quietly their own approved principles.' Would this preacher claim a merit for our Established Church, because she abstains from persecuting her *quiet* Protestant brethren? When such assertions are made, we may fear that some few of her members, if left to themselves, would *not permit* the sectary to follow his principles; especially after we have read in a note that, if our Saviour was to pass by a certain methodistic place of worship in Newington Butts, inscribed *the House of God*, 'he would enter in and scourge them out for a den of thieves.' To this illiberal language, so ill suited to the 19th century, is subjoined a wish 'that the public influence of sectaries was abolished by authority of Parliament.' How ignorant must Mr. D. be of the principles of religious liberty, or of the true policy of States! On the treatment of sects, the advice of Gamaliel is wisdom.

The memoir briefly notices the prominent events in Dr. Horsley's learned and active life. He was born at Thorley in Essex, in October 1733, and died at Brighton, October 4, 1806.

Art. 37. *The Spirituality of the Divine Essence.* Preached before the Associated Ministers and Churches of Hampshire, September 24, 1806, and published at the united Request of the Minister and Congregation of Fareham, where it was delivered. By John Styles. 8vo. 1s. Williams and Co.

In speaking of the Divine Nature, we employ words with very inadequate notions. The text of this discourse, (John iv. 24.) though in the shape of a positive proposition, conveys only negative ideas; and it is thus contemplated by the sensible preacher. It asserts that God is not matter, but possesses in his nature properties infinitely superior to and distinct from it; or is an eternal, independent, infinite, almighty, immutable, holy, and good spirit, having neither a body nor parts of a body. This doctrine is established by the marks of intelligence observable in the universe, by the creation of inferior spiritual beings, and by the testimony of revelation. Hence is deduced the importance of religion, the folly of idolatry, and the nature of acceptable worship.

To this elaborate discourse is added a suitable improvement.

CORRESPONDENCE.

‘ *To the* EDITOR *of the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

‘ Sir, 3d April, 1807.

‘ IN your Review for February, p. 221, you ask a question, which I beg leave to answer, as it may prove highly detrimental to Messrs. Dring and Fage, by obstructing the sale of an article, of which they are the proprietors. *Clarke*'s hydrometer is the only one used, or allowed by Government, for estimating the strength of spirits either in the Customs or Excise; nor is there, as far as I can learn, the least intention of disusing it.

‘ Permit me to add, that I prefixed the word *Genuine*, to distinguish my book from another with a title nearly similar: and I trust the Reviewer will allow that *spurious* arts, and *spurious* practices, are sometimes adopted in many things: and that many, who may possibly have learned both decimal fractions, and the extraction of roots, when at school, have forgotten them too far to apply them when they set about gauging, without the assistance of some remembrancer. To a candid reader, too, I apprehend, nothing I have given will be found superfluous; though surely such a one cannot deem the whole of Euclid's Elements necessary.

‘ I am, Sir,
‘ Your obedient humble Servant,
‘ PETER JONAS.’

We have received a letter from Mr. Winter, in which he intimates a want of candour in our account of his Sermon *On the endless Duration of Future Punishment*: (Rev. for March, p. 335.) but we are rather surprized at such a charge, when we studiously endeavoured to distinguish between the preacher and his argument We allowed Mr. W. to be what we believe he is, a very amiable man, though we could not suffer his reasoning to pass without animadversion, when we regarded it as subversive of all our notions of the divine rectitude. We grant that theologians, who take his side of the question, are induced by the laudable motive of deterring sinners: but they seem not aware that their argument, by destroying the moral attributes of God, would tend, if duly considered, to annihilate our love and reverence for the Deity, and in course to annihilate the first principle of religion. Scripture should therefore be judiciously interpreted on this point. That the meaning of words is influenced by the connection in which they stand, and by the subject to which they are applied, is very evident. In the present case, would not Mr. Winter smile with contempt at a writer who should quote the expressions of Scripture, "*everlasting mountains*," and "*everlasting hills*," as proofs of the eternal existence of the world? It is of little consequence whether κολασιν or αιωνιον be used. The latter is, as we remarked, employed in the text of the sermon: but we readily acknowlege an oversight on this point, as stated by Mr. W. in his letter, and have to observe that in Matthew 25. 46, to which he refers at p. 18, as the strongest evidence on the subject, the word κολασιν and not αιωνιον will be found.—While we combat the doctrine of eternal punishment in another world, we certainly shall not hesitate to exonerate Mr. W. from temporary censure at our insignificant tribunal, when it appears to have been erroneously bestowed.

We know nothing of the work mentioned by W. H. in a letter dated *Lincoln, July* 18, 1807: but perhaps our acquaintance with it may commence before the arrival of the time thus anticipated.

J. W. H. has our thanks for his polite communication, and for the justice which he renders to our feelings in supposing that it cannot be otherwise than acceptable to us as literary men. We are scarcely aware, however, to what use we can apply it, since we are ignorant of the book to which it refers, but which we suspect to be a periodical publication not cognizable by us.

Our friend S. G. mistakes the meaning of the passage on which he founds his inference. When we spoke of *Surveyors*, (see Rev. for March, p. 308.) we quoted the term used by the writer of the work then before us, but certainly did not design to pass a censure on *architects*. We know that the words are at present too often confounded: but we intended then, and do now wish, to protest against such indiscriminate language:—a title, which is applicable only to scientific and well educated artists, should not be conferred on *measurers* and *builders*:—the context, we think, might have illustrated our meaning.—To what precise description of persons the author of the book meant to refer, it is more within his power than ours to ascertain.

*** The APPENDIX to this Vol. of the Review will be published with the Number for May, on the 1st of June.

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
FIFTY-SECOND VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Mémoires présentés à l'Institut*, &c.; *i.e.* Memoirs presented to the Institute of Sciences, Letters, and Arts, by several learned Men, and read at the Meetings.—*Mathematical and Physical Sciences.* Vol. I. 4to. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

To the antient volumes of Memoirs of the Academy of Paris are annexed, as forming a supplementary work, eleven volumes, intitled like that which is now before us, *Mémoires présentés*, &c. In these repositories were inserted Memoirs communicated by foreigners, and by other philosophers who were not members of the Academy; and to that appendix the present corresponds, bearing a similar relation to the volumes of the Institute.

A preface details the causes which have hitherto delayed the publication of this volume: but they are uninteresting to the English reader.

Papers on MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, &c.

The brief Astronomical Memoirs, here inserted, are

Astronomical Observations made at the National Observatory of Paris, Year 4th. to determine the Opposition of Mars and Jupiter. By M. Bouvard.

Determination of the Orbits of some antient Comets. By J. C. Burckhardt.

Memoir on Micrometers. By J. C. BURCKHARDHT.

Theorems on Polyhedrometry. By SIMON LHUILLIER, Professor of Mathematics at Geneva.—If we call the faces of a Polyhedron, A, B, C, D, &c. and the Inclination of two faces AB, ab, of AC, ac, &c. then it is easily shewn that

$$A = B.\ \cos.\ ab + C.\ \cos.\ ac + D.\ \cos.\ ad + \&c. \quad (1)$$

Similarly,

$$B = A.\ \cos.\ ab + C.\ \cos.\ bc + \&c. \quad (2)$$

$$C = A.\ \cos.\ ac + \&c. \quad (3)$$

These equations the Genevese Professor chiefly uses for deducing the properties of polyhedrons. His process, although not very compendious, is plain and direct, and is conducted by successive eliminations; thus from equations (1) (2), A may be eliminated; also from equations (2) (3), &c.

In the latter part of his memoir, the author gives two theorems relative to the centre of gravity; in which the distance of the centre is determined by the sum of the products of each body into the square of its distance from any point. The first theorem of this kind was proposed by *La Grange* in the Berlin Memoirs of 1783; and it has since been given by that learned author in his *Fonct. Analyt.* and by *La Place* in his *Mecaniq. Céleste.* If m, m', m'', &c. denote the bodies d, d', d'', &c. their distance from any point, P, δ, δ', &c. shews their mutual distances; then the distance of the centre of gravity from P = square root of this quantity:

$$\frac{md^2 + m'd'^2 + \&c.}{m + m' + \&c.} - \frac{mm'\delta^2 + mm''\delta'^2 + \&c.}{(m + m' + \&c.)^2}.$$

Memoir on Equations of mixed Differences. By M. BIOT.—By an equation of *mixed differences*, is understood one that expresses a relation between the differential or fluxionary coefficients of y, and the differences of y; the quantity y being supposed to be a function of x.

For instance, if $y_{,} = y + \Delta y$, then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x\left(y_{,} - y - \frac{dy}{dx}\right) - \left(y_{,} - y - \frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2$$

or, in English notation,

$$\frac{\dot{y}}{\dot{x}} = 2x\left(y_{,} - y - \frac{\dot{y}}{\dot{x}}\right) - \left(y_{,} - y - \frac{\dot{y}}{\dot{x}}\right)^2$$

is an equation of mixed differences.

Equations of this kind arise from such questions as the following. It is required to find curves possessed of this property,

perty, that if tangents be drawn to the points of which the coordinates are $x, y, x_{,}, y_{,}$, the angle formed by these tangents shall be constant. This problem, expressed in the notation appropriated to mixed differences, is

$$\Delta \left(\text{arc tang.} = \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)\right) = a$$

If the variation of x be such that $x_{,} - x$ or $\Delta x = 1$, then

$$\text{arc tan.} = \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = ax + f\,(\sin.\, 2\,\pi x,\ \cos.\, 2\,\pi x) = ax + \varphi$$

$$\text{consequently } \frac{dy}{dx} = \tan.\,(ax + \varphi)$$

$$\text{and } y = b + \int dx.\, \tan.\,(ax + \varphi)$$

Again; *Euler*'s problems, solved by indirect methods, (in the *Novi Commentarii*, t. x.) belong to the theory of equations of mixed differences: for instance, this problem; it is required to find curves possessing this property, that if from any one of their points a normal be drawn terminating in the axis, this normal shall be equal to the ordinate erected at its foot, and so on.

These conditions, expressed analytically, are

$$y_{,}^{2} = y^{2} + \frac{y^{2}\,dy^{2}}{dx^{2}}$$

$$x_{,} = x + \frac{y\,dy}{dx}$$

since $\frac{y\,dy}{dx}$ is the value of the subnormal.

The solutions of these equations are $y^{2} = \omega\,\varphi^{2} + \psi$

$$\frac{y\,dy}{dx} = \varphi$$

ω being a quantity of which the difference is 1, and φ and ψ being arbitrary functions of $\sin.\, 2\,\pi\,\omega$, $\cos.\, 2\,\pi\,\omega$.

This is not the first time that M. BIOT has presented to the public the fruit of his researches on this difficult part of analysis. The third volume of the Memoirs of the Institute contains similar inquiries.

The general and complete Integration of the Equations of the Propagation of Sound; the Air being considered as of three Dimensions. By MARK ANTONY PARSEVAL.—The first problem relative to the propagation of sound was that which was suggested by the problem of vibrating chords. The air being considered to be only of one dimension, the differential equation which resulted was

$$\frac{a^2 d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2}$$

which equation, it is known, *D'Alembert* solved.—The air, however, being considered to be of *more* than of one dimension, the differential equations that arose in consequence of such consideration became of more difficult solution. To this subject, M. PARSEVAL has repeatedly turned his attention; and, after many trials, he flatters himself that in this memoir he has overcome the difficulty, and has resolved the problem. He confesses, however, that it would have been fortunate if his solution had possessed the advantage of that of *D'Alembert*; in which, by the simple inspection of its form, he finds the laws of the propagation of sound, which are known independently of the nature of arbitrary functions; while in M. PARSEVAL's solution this advantage cannot take place, since the variable quantities relative to the definite integrals are enveloped under the sign of the functions, and since there are no means of performing the integration unaided by a previous knowlege of the nature of those functions.

Without many symbols and processes, we cannot present to our readers the method pursued by this mathematician: but, in a concise way, we can represent it to consist in reducing the total integration to a single definite integration for the case of two dimensions, and to two definite integrals for the case of three dimensions.—We must add, however, that M. PARSEVAL's method appears to us not remarkably elegant and general; and that many parts of it are indirect.

Memoir on Curves of double Curvature. By M. LANCRET.—This paper contains several properties relating to the curves of double curvature; some of which (viz. those due to the author of the memoir) are demonstrated, and other properties discovered by *Clairaut*, *Euler*, &c. as having connection with those which are demonstrated, are premised. As the nature of the paper and of the discussion precludes us from any particular comment, we must content ourselves with recommending it to the notice of mathematical readers.

The French mathematicians have attended particularly to the subject of curves of double curvature, and especially *Monge*. Many curious researches, indeed, are connected with the subject. It is rather strange, but we believe the fact to be, that no English mathematician has treated these curves; if there be any, it must be Waring, in his *Proprietates Curvarum*: but we have not the power of immediate reference.

Researches on the Application of the general Formulas of the culus of Variations to Problems in Mechanics. By A. M. PÈRE.—If P, Q, R, be the forces acting on a body of ich the element, according to the differential notation, be then the equation of equilibrium is

$$(P\delta p + Q\delta q + R\delta r)\, dm$$

to this equation must be added the equation of condition; instance, $L\delta\lambda$.

This is the method adopted by M. *La Grange* in his *Mé-iq. Analytique*; and in page 55 he says that "the equation have a form analogous to equations which the Calculus of riations furnishes for the determination of the maxima and nima of integral formulas; and consequently the rules in Calculus of Variations may be applied to the Equation of uilibrium." As a precept this is sufficiently clear, and of application he gives several instances. One of his pro-ms regards the catenary: the equation of condition must derived from the circumstance of its *inextensibility*: s, if ds be the element of the arc, $ds = \sqrt{\{dx^2 + dy^2\}}$

$$\text{and } \delta ds = 0 = \frac{dx.\delta dx + dy\delta dy}{ds}$$

Hence integrating $\int \lambda\delta ds$ by parts according to the known thod in the Calculus of Variations, the terms to be added the equation of condition are

$$d.\ \frac{\lambda dx}{ds}.\ \delta x, \text{ \&c.}$$

en if X be the forces parallel to the axis x, and y the forces allel to the axis y, we have

$$Xdm - d\frac{\lambda dx}{ds} = 0$$

$$Ydm - d\ \frac{\lambda dy}{ds} = 0$$

$$\text{and hence } \frac{\lambda dx}{ds} = A + \int Xdm$$

$$\frac{\lambda dy}{ds} = B + \int Ydm$$

equation to the curve.

We have perused the memoir of M. AMPÈRE with some ention, but cannot discover its precise object. He wishes employ the formulas invented by *Euler* and *La Grange* in Calculus of Variations for the solution of problems like the ceding problem; and, no doubt, in complicated cases it uld be very commodious to use them: but if a mathematician should employ such, we see not on what grounds he could lay claim to any invention or considerable improvement. *La Grange* in fact employs them. In cases simple as those of the catenary, it would not be worth while to recur to the formulæ of *Euler* and *La Grange*, since the business can be effected more expeditiously. M. AMPÈRE solves the problem which we have considered, but we see nothing remarkable nor new in his solution. The properties of the catenary, if we understand by such the values of its subnormal, evolute, &c. if not formally put down in any treatise, may easily be deduced; and the facility and obvious method of deducing them render their insertion in the National Memoirs of France unsuitable and unnecessary. We have no great opinion of the mathematical abilities of M. AMPÈRE.

A general and complete Integration of two important Equations that occur in the Motion of Fluids. By MARK ANTONY PARSEVAL.—In the second part of his *Mécaniq. Analytique*, (p. 501.) M. *La Grange* gave an equation for the propagation of sound; and it is the object of the present memoir to solve that equation, under the reduced form which it assumes when the fluid is not supposed to be agitated by an accelerating force: in which case the equation is this:

$$\left(gh - \frac{d\varphi^2}{dx}\right)\frac{d^2\varphi}{dx^2} - 2.\frac{d\varphi}{dx}\cdot\frac{d^2\varphi}{dx.dt} - \frac{d^2\varphi}{dt^2} = 0 \qquad (1)$$

If we suppose the oscillations to be very small, then the equation becomes of this form:

$$a^2.\frac{d^2\varphi}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2\varphi}{dt^2}$$

on which equation, it is well known, the solution of the problem of vibrating chords depends. This latter equation was first solved by *D'Alembert*, and afterward by *Euler*; and the problem occasioned a long controversy between those mathematicians.

M. PARSEVAL transforms the equation (1) by a method analogous to that which *Euler* employed in his *last* solution (for he gave more than *one*) of the problem of vibrating chords. The method consists in supposing φ to be a function of μ and ν, and then μ and ν to be functions of two other variable quantities p and q: the peculiar form of the function for μ and ν is stated by the author.

Having made the necessary substitutions, &c. M. PARSEVAL transforms his equation (1) into one of this form:

$$\frac{d^2\varphi}{d\mu\, d\nu} + \frac{1}{4k}\left\{\frac{d\varphi}{d\mu} + \frac{d\varphi}{d\nu}\right\} = 0$$

of which, by the combination of his own method with that of *La Place*, (*Mem. Acad.* 1779) he gives the integral.

The second part of the memoir relates to the integration of a differential equation given at p. 489 of the *Mécanique Analytique*, (M. PARSEVAL has inserted a wrong reference,) which expresses the conditions of the motion of a fluid contained in a canal of small depth, and nearly horizontal. M. *La Grange* solved the equation only under a certain restriction, viz. that the fluid in its motion is only elevated to a very small height above the level: but M. PARSEVAL integrates the equation generally, or with this condition alone, that the horizontal canal is composed of fluid laminæ always moving according to the same law.

A Method of Summing, by Definite Integrals, the Series given by the Theorem of M. La Grange, by means of which he finds a Value that satisfies an algebraic or transcendental Equation. By the Same.—If α be the least root of the equation,

$$u - x + fx = o:$$

$$\text{then } \alpha^r = u^r + (u^r)' \times fu + \left(\frac{(u^r)' \times f^2 u}{2}\right)' + \&c.$$

r being any number positive or negative. This theorem is due to M. *La Grange*, and we have expressed it in the language employed by that mathematician in his *Fonctions Analytiques*.

If $r = 1$, then $(u^r)' = (u)' = 1$ since u' in English notation $= \frac{\dot{u}}{\dot{u}}$; and in this case the series assumes a more simple form. It is the intention of the present author to sum the series under such simple form; which he effects in about 20 pages, and then applies his result to examples.

Memoir on Series, and on the complete Integration of an Equation of partial linear Differences of the second Order, with constant Coefficients. By the Same.—*De Moivre* has given (and, if our recollection be right, he was the original author,) an expression for the sum of a series $a + bx + cx^2 +$ &c. of which the n^{th} differences of the coefficients are equal.

Euler has extended the expression; and he has shewn that if S be the sum of $a + bx + cx^2 +$ &c. and if each term be multiplied respectively by the terms A, B, C, D, &c. quantities such that their ultimate m^{th} differences $(\Delta^m A)$ are equal o, then the sum of

$$Aa + Bb.x + \&c.$$

$$= AS + \Delta A x . \frac{dS}{dx} + \Delta^2 A . x^2 . \frac{d^2 S}{dx^2} + \&c.$$

Mr. Parseval has invented an analogous method for summing such a series as

$$Aa + Bb + Cc + \&c.$$

formed by the multiplication of two series

$$A + Bf + Cf^2 + \&c.$$

$$a + b\,\frac{1}{f} + c.\,\frac{1}{f^2} + \&c.$$

term with term; and this method he employs, towards the conclusion of his memoir, in integrating a differential partial equation of the second order.—The general method of summing the compounded series is very simple and ingenious: but, applied to easy cases that can be solved otherwise and directly, it is tedious and complicated.

In a short *Appendix* to this volume are inserted two Mathematical Memoirs, by C. F. De Nieuport. The first contains the solution of a problem proposed by *D'Alembert* in the 8th volume of his *Opuscules*, p. 40. relative to the conditions of the equilibrium of a flexible string fastened to its two ends, and passing through a groove cut in a body which is supported by the string. M. Nieuport resolves the problem, on the principle that the centre of gravity is always at the lowest or the highest point in the case of equilibrium.

The second memoir is *on the general Equation of regular Polygons, and on the Division of any Arc whatever into equal Parts.* If the chord of A be expressed by any symbol, as p, then the chord of nA can be expressed in terms of p; and from such expression, putting nA equal to the circumference, we should obtain an expression involving p and n. Hence n being given, we should have an equation involving p and the powers of p; and p would be the side of a regular polygon of n sides inscribed in a circle. This method is sufficiently plain when an expression for chord nA is obtained; and that expression is perhaps most easily obtained by the aid of the exponential expression for the sine and cosine of an arc: but it may be obtained otherwise, by Waring's method in his *Proprietates Curvarum*, or that of *La Grange* in his *Fonctions Analytiques*, or that of *Arbogast* in his *Calcul des Dérivations.*

The method employed by the author of the present memoir is in fact that which uses imaginary expressions.

If u be the chord and z the arc, then since $u = 2\sin\frac{z}{2}$

$$\frac{dz}{2} = \frac{du}{2\sqrt{\left\{1 - \frac{u^2}{4}\right\}}} \ldots\ldots$$

Consequently, $\frac{dz}{2}\sqrt{-1} = \frac{du}{2} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{u^2}{4}}-1}$

and integrating

$$h\,i\,l\frac{z}{2}\sqrt{-1} = -h\,l\left\{\frac{u}{2}\sqrt{-1}+\sqrt{\frac{u^2}{4}-1}\right\}+C$$

and by a simple process, we shall obtain an expression of this kind:

$$\left(v\sqrt{-1}+\sqrt{(1-v^2)}\right)^n+1=0$$

putting $nz = \text{circumference} = \frac{h\,l.-1}{\sqrt{-1}}$

Equating the possible and the impossible parts, expressions for the chords of $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, &c. of the circumference will result.

We discern little in this memoir that intitles it in our opinion to the honor of insertion. If *Euler* (*Analysis Infinitorum*) and *La Croix* (*Introduction, Calcul diff.*) have not given the same method, they have suggested those which are very nearly related and similar to it; and the same results may be obtained without the aid of those symbols, on the legitimate use of which all mathematicians are not agreed.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

It appears by the dates prefixed to these memoirs, that a considerable period has elapsed since they were presented to the Institute; and in most cases, either the whole of the papers or an abstract from them has already been given in some of the literary journals: so that, however valuable in themselves, their publication will afford little new information. On this account, we shall be more than usually brief in our notice of them.

Memoir on the Sap of Plants, and particularly on that of the Vine and the Hornbeam, with an Analysis of this Fluid. By M. DEYEUX.—The most important fact ascertained in this paper is that the sap of the vine and hornbeam contains the acetate of lime, united to a quantity of vegeto-animal matter, which appears to be similar to the gluten of wheat. The essay is well written, and must have been valuable when it was originally presented to the society, in the year 1796: but it is now, in a great measure, superseded by the experiments of M. *Vauquelin.*

Memoir on three different Species of Carbonated Hydrogenous Gas, produced by different Processes, from Ether and Alcohol. By M. M. BONDT, DEIMAN, PAATS VAN TROOSTWYK, and LAUWERENBURG,

BURG, of Amsterdam.—This very valuable paper contains an account of the discovery of the olifient gas. An ample abstract of it was afforded to the chemists of France, soon after it was presented to the Institute, in the 45th vol. of the *Journal de Physique*, and has been laid before the English reader in some of our temporary publications.

Sketch of some Experiments respecting the Division which Cylinders of Camphor experience at the Surface of Water, and Reflections on the Motions which accompany this Division. By J. B. VENTURI, *Professor of Natural Philosophy at Modena*, &c.—An account of these experiments has already appeared in the 21st vol. of the *Annales de Chimie.*

Memoir on the Blood of Persons affected with Jaundice, considered with respect to its Chemical Relations. By M. DEYEUX.—A principal object of this paper is to ascertain whether the yellow tinge which the blood exhibits in Jaundice be, according to the common opinion, owing to the actual presence of bile in it. Having obtained a quantity of this blood, M. DEYEUX permitted the crassamentum and serum to separate; when, although the latter exhibited the deep yellow color, it had neither the odor nor the taste of bile; nor was alcohol, by being digested on it, impregnated with any degree of bitterness. It was remarkable that the crassamentum was not reddened in the usual manner by exposure to the atmosphere, nor did the serum become solid by the application of heat to it. We think that the author is justified in his conclusion that, in this case, there was no proper bile in the blood. The facts stated in this paper are curious, and deserve the attentive consideration of the physiologist.

Observations on the Concrete Citric Acid. By M. DIZÉ.—These remarks have already appeared in the *Annales de Chimie*, and in an English dress.

Memoir on the Filaments or Hairs which cover the Plant that produces the Cicer Arietinum; and a Chemical Examination of the Liquor which exudes from these Hairs: By M. DEYEUX.—The hairs with which this plant is so abundantly beset are observed, at particular periods, to be tipped with a minute drop of fluid; of which the author contrived to collect a sufficient quantity to examine its nature, when he found it to consist of pure oxalic acid.

Meteorological Observations made at Cayenne, from the 1st December 1778, to the 30th November 1789. By M. MENTELLE, *Geographical Engineer*, &c.—The most remarkable circumstance in these observations is the great quantity of rain that falls at Cayenne, which on the average is nearly 98 inches annually; in the year 1791 it was 116 inches. In the interior part of Guiana, the rain is said to fall in still larger quantity.

History of a Woman who had one of the Ovaries tranformed into Hydatids, and in whose Womb was found a very hard and very compact Bony Substance. By Dr. ODIER *of Geneva.*—An unmarried female, 70 years of age, after having enjoyed a good state of health, was hurt by a fall, and had afterward a number of complaints, which were referred to the stomach: but from some of the symptoms it was suspected that the pancreas was scirrhous. After death this was discovered to be the case; and on continuing the examination, one of the ovaries was found converted into a mass of Hydatids, and the uterus, although of its natural size, was completely filled by a mass of bone.

Collection of different Observations on Chemistry. By M. PROUST.—Of this very interesting paper we have already (vol. 48. p. 458.) had an opportunity of giving an ample account, from the historical part of the last volume of the Memoirs of the Institute. We are happy to see it now published in its entire state.

Anatomical Observations on a Patient, on whom the Operation for Popliteal Aneurism had been performed, according to the Method of Hunter. By M. DESCHAMP.—The subject completely recovered from the operation, but, after the space of eight years, was carried off by a disease of the chest, when an opportunity occurred of examining the state of the limb. About 2½ inches of the arterial trunk was found to be obliterated.

Experiments on the Influence of Light on Vegetables. By A. P. DECANDOLLE.—We have here an account of the comparative effects produced on plants, by being kept in a dark chamber, and in one lighted by lamps, to a certain degree of intensity. It was found that plants, which had been blanched in the dark chamber, were rendered green when removed into the other: but the light of the lamps did not appear adequate to detach oxygenous gas from them. M. DECANDOLLE observed the effects of different degrees of light on what has been called the sleep of plants: but the results of his experiments do not seem sufficiently satisfactory to enable us to draw any important conclusion from them.

Memoir on the Pores of the Bark. By the Same.—When the epidermis is removed from a leaf, a net work is discovered, from the fibres of which arise a number of small pores. The use of these bodies has not been accurately ascertained: but from observing on what kinds of plants and on what particular parts of them they existed in the greatest number, the author concludes that their principal office is to carry on the insensible transpiration.

Memoir on the Vegetation of Misletoe. By the Same.—It was found that, by inserting the cut end of a branch which contained misletoe into a red infusion, the coloring matter passed into the vessels of the plant; and that the infusion was also capable of being transmitted from the misletoe into the branch.

Outline of a Plan for establishing Experimental Farms, and for fixing the Principles of Agricultural Improvements. By Sir John Sinclair, Bart. M. P. and founder of the British Board of Agriculture.—We learn that this paper was presented to the Institute by M. *Otto*, in the year 8, (1799) but it is for the most part the same with Essay X. in an 8vo. volume, on miscellaneous subjects, which Sir John S. published in London in 1802, and of which we gave some account in M. R. vol. xl. N. S. p. 289. The English essay is intitled "Proposals for establishing by subscription a new Institution to be called the Plough: or Joint Stock Farming and Experimental Society," &c. Though the author seemed seriously to discuss the objections which would probably be urged against his scheme, we did not suppose that he was so sanguine as to cherish the idea of ever seeing it carried into effect. By offering it also to the French, however, it may be concluded that he did not consider the plan as altogether theoretical. He has here stated the outlines, but has deemed it prudent not to anticipate objections. In the *Report* subjoined, it is admitted by our enemies that their resources for the execution of projects of this nature are very different from those which we enjoy in England; and that though the scheme may appear to involve nothing extraordinary in the contemplation of the author's own countrymen, it must without doubt strike the French as *gigantic.*

Three plates accompany this communication; the first represents the divisions of an experimental farm, with the crops in each field for one year; the second, the ground plan and elevation of the circular cottages proposed to be erected for the labouring peasants; and the third, a plan and view of a village.

Observations on the Births, Marriages, and Deaths which occurred at Montpellier in the course of twenty-one Years, from 1772 to 1792 inclusive, and the Calculations which result from them respecting the Probabilities of Life. By M. J. A. MOURGUE.—The facts here stated are that during the above mentioned period the number of births at Montpellier was 25,064, viz. 12,919 males, and 12,145 females:—that the excess of males above females was 774:—that the anual average of births was 1193, or 615 males, and 578 females;—that though in the whole of these twenty-one years the births of males exceeded those of the females, yet in 1776, 1784, and 1792, or about every eighth year, the number of female births surpassed that of the males;—and that of the 25,064 births, 2735 were illegitimate, amounting to about $\frac{1}{9}$ of the whole *.

For the purpose of ascertaining the influence of the seasons on the production of the human species, M. Mourgue placed in separate columns the births which happened between the autumnal and the vernal equinox, and those between the vernal and the autumnal. The result was that he found the births in the cold half year to exceed by one seventh those of the six summer months, or to be as 13,490 to 11,574; the former surpassing the latter by 1916. The quarterly account stands thus: for January, February and March, the whole number was 6594; for April, May and June, 5388; for July, Aug. and Sept. 6186; and for Oct. Nov. and Dec. 6896: whence it follows that the three autumnal months give more births by one fourth than the three spring months. The author remarks, however, that, if we carry our view backwards for nine months from the birth, we shall find that these calculations will demonstrate the month of May to be most propitious to love.

Having compared the first five years of the above named 21 with the last five, or the period from 1772 to 1776 inclusively with that from 1788 to 1792, the writer discovered a considerable increase of population, notwithstanding that the latter period included the first years of the revolution. According to an exact enumeration made in 1793, the city of Montpellier contained 32,897 inhabitants.

Under the head of Marriages, we are informed that, in the course of these twenty-one years, 5926 took place, or about 282 yearly. By comparing the annual number of marriages with that of the whole population, it appears that only one Marriage occurs in 117 persons. If, moreover, we oppose the mean number of births (1193) to that of marriages (282,) it will be seen that only a little more than a quarter † of those who are born reach the married state.

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* The author adds that, from observations made in other places, he is inclined to believe that this proportion of illegitimate to legitimate births will apply to all the great towns in France.

† This *quarter* should be *about half*, because 282 marriages must make 564 persons.

The section on necrology gives a distinct account of the mortality of the city of Montpellier during the above stated period, and of the deaths in the large hospital of St. Eloi. Of the inhabitants of Montpellier, 23,366 (11,703 males, 11,663 females) died in the course of twenty-one years; and if this number be compared with that of the births (25,064) it will be seen that the population of this city has increased 1698 in twenty-one years. Certain years are specified as having been marked by a singular mortality, occasioned by the prevalence of the small pox; the ravages of which, the author laments, are very partially resisted in France by the practice of Inoculation.

Considering deaths, as he had before viewed the births, in relation to the seasons of the year, M. MOURGUE found that, from the autumnal to the vernal equinox, or from Oct. 1st to March 31st, the burials were 11,780 (5852 males, 5928 females;) and that from the vernal to the autumnal, or from April 1st to Sep. 30th, there were 11,586 (5851 males, 5735 females). Scarcely any difference here appears in the number of deaths among the males in one half year and in the other: but in that of the females a considerable variation subsisted, since 193 more died in the interval between the autumnal and the vernal equinox.

By a comparison of the mortality of the several months of the year with each other, M. MOURGUE found that the month of August presented the greatest number of burials, and the month of May the least, nearly in the proportion of 3¼ to 2; that the month of August is most fatal to men, and the month of September to women.

Particular notice is here taken, similar to remarks that have been made in other places, of the great proportion of children who die under 5 years old, and especially in the first year. Of the 23,366 deaths above stated, 11,497 were children who had not attained their fifth year, constituting nearly one half of the total mortality; and of this moiety, one half died in the first year. It was discovered also by the registers, that this state of childhood was more fatal to boys than girls. M. MOURGUE attributes the great mortality of children to a want of care in the mothers, who are employed in manufactures, &c. especially in rearing silk-worms; and he quotes a proverb which says, 'the season of raising silk-worms is that in which most people are sent to paradise.'

It is stated also that the period from 10 to 20 gives the least mortality; that from 40 to 50, the number of deaths is double that between 10 and 20; that the proportional number of persons who exceed 70 years of age at Montpellier is rarely surpassed

passed in any other country, amounting to an eighth of the deaths; that from 70 to 80, more women die than men; and that from 80 to 90, double, and from 90 to 100, treble the number of women compared with men:—taking the whole population, 1 in 29½ dies annually.

We must pass over the tables and calculations relative to the hospital of St. Eloi.

In attempting to account for the circumstance of more persons dying at some seasons of the year than at others, the author has recourse to the discoveries of *Ingenhousz*, Priestley, and *Sennebier*; and he considers the oxygen gas elaborated by plants, and diffused through the atmosphere during the spring and summer months, as the cause of their superior salubrity.

This paper concludes with observations on the probabilities of life among the inhabitants of Montpellier; and with tables by which, according to the plans of Dr. Price and others, the chances of living at any given age may be calculated.

Memoir on the different Boats and Barks employed in the Herring Fishery by Europeans. By M. S. B. J. NOEL.—It is the design of this memoir to exhibit and compare with each other the different methods employed by different nations, in catching Herrings: but we have not space for extending so wide a net.

Observations on the Arachis Hypogæa, or Earth-nut. By M. POITEAU.—This naturalist was appointed by the French Government in the year 4, (1795) to proceed on a botanical expedition to St. Domingo, where he encountered difficulties and disease, and experienced the kindness of Mr. Stevens, the American Consul-General, whose name he mentions with gratitude. Among the plants which he particularly noticed in this island, was the *Arachis*, or the *Earth Pistacia*, an economical plant of the leguminous tribe. He opposes the common opinion of botanists, that the *Arachis* produces male flowers, together with those which are female and hermaphrodite; and he asserts that it yields fruit equal to the number of its flowers. A plate is annexed, exhibiting the growth and fructification of this useful vegetable.

Memoir on two Kinds of Litchi cultivated in the Moluccas. By J. J. LABILLARDIERE.—Of the trees which are the subject of this memoir, and which were introduced into the Molucca islands on account of the pleasantness of their fruit, the first is the *ramb-outan* of the Malays, and the *nephelium lappaceum* of Linné; and the second is named by the Malays, *ramb-outan-aké*, but is unknown to European botanists. M. LABILLARDIERE recommends to his government the transplantation of this second kind into the French colonies, as a tree from which singular advantages may be derived. Two engravings are subjoined.

Observations on Terrestrial Refraction. By M. Dangos, Associate of the Institute.—The phænomenon here described was observed at Malta, March 20, 1784, about one o'clock. An island seemed to rise out of the sea in the canal of Malta; a peculiar appearance, which M. Dangos observed more than once, and which was caused by the reflection of the snowy top of Mount Etna: but this image, it is contended, could not have been effected by one simple reflection on the surface of the sea. It is remarked that a thick fog preceded this phænomenon.

Memoir on the Pepper conveyed in 1788 *from the Isle of France to Cayenne, by* M. Martin, *by order of the Minister La Luzerne, and on the Advantages of its Culture in that Colony.* By J. B. Leblond.—Of all the spices, pepper is in the most general use, and its cultivation is of the most importance. On this subject, the author of the present memoir quotes the observations of M. *Velloso*, a Portuguese writer, and of M. *Huffenet*, an experienced agriculturist in French Guiana.

An Attempt to form a new Natural Classification of Reptiles. By Alex. Brongniart, Professor of Natural History, &c.—The substance of this ingenious essay is contained in two sections, the first of which relates to the rules that should be followed in this classification, and the formation of orders; and the second, to the formation and disposition of the genera. After having adverted to the difficulties which attend the undertaking, and to the objections with which the former methods of arrangement are embarrassed, M. Brongniart proceeds to develope his new classification; which contains four orders of reptiles, nicely characterized by their organization and external parts. Order I. consists of the *Chéloniens*, or reptiles analogous to the tortoise, whose distinctive external characters are, that they have no set-in-teeth, and that the body is covered with a shell. Order II. of the *Sauriens*, or reptiles resembling the lizard; the external characters of which are, that they have claws, teeth set-in, and the body covered with scales. Order III. of the *Ophidiens*, or reptiles resembling the serpent; the external characters of which are, that they have no claws nor feet, and have long cylindric bodies. Order IV. of the *Batraciens*, or reptiles analogous to the frog, having feet and a naked skin.—The several genera which occur under each of these divisions are specified in the second section: but it will not be expected of us to enter into this detail. The curious naturalist will, in course, peruse the whole of the essay.

We have now taken a brief view of the contents of this large volume; which, it will be seen, are of a miscellaneous nature, and afford various degrees of merit. Our attention is next called to a continuation of our report of the regular volumes of this learned body, according to the last *livraison* which has reached us.

Art. II. *Mémoires de l'Institut*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute. Vol. VI. *Mathematical and Physical Sciences.*

[*Article concluded from our last Appendix.*]

Medicine, Chemistry, Natural History, &c.

Memoir on the Bones of the Female Pelvis. By M. Tenon.—In this paper, which appears to us rather tedious and uninteresting, the author discusses at considerable length the question respecting the opening of the *symphisis pubis* during delivery; after which he gives us the result of his examination into the structure of the part, and the nature of the connection which exists between the two bones. Respecting the first object of inquiry, he adduces many powerful authorities in support of each of the opinions: but we do not perceive that any new light is thrown on the question, or that the controversy is brought more nearly to a conclusion. M. Tenon seems to have examined with much minuteness the manner in which the bones are connected together; and the result of his inquiry is, that they are sometimes united by a common cartilage, while in other cases each of the bones is furnished with its separate cartilage, which are joined together by a common ligament.

Memoir on the Determination of three Natural Epochas for the Production of Volcanoes, and of the use which may be made of these Epochas in the study of Volcanoes. By M. Desmarest.—To the effects produced by volcanic eruptions, geologists have always had recourse, in the speculations and hypotheses which form so large a portion of their labours. As M. Desmarest is known to have devoted himself particularly to this object, we are happy to meet with any thing from his pen, which will tend to generalize the scattered observations that occur in the writings of so many travellers and naturalists. He thinks that volcanoes may be arranged under three divisions, corresponding

ing to the length of time that has elapsed since their formation; and to each of these species he assigns determinate characters. Firſt, those of the most recent formation possess open craters, and are surrounded with scoria, and different bodies which exhibit the immediate effects of fusion. In the second kind, the craters and scoria are no longer to be found, but the currents of lava may be traced, covering the horizontal strata of the earth, and intersected by streams and vallies. In the last and most antient species of volcanoes, the lava is diſcovered below the horizontal strata, and not unfrequently even beneath the waters of the ocean. How far this hypothesis will be found to accord with the phænomena of nature must be determined by those who have more opportunities than we possess, of *diving into the depths* of geological science: but it wears a plausible appearance, and, if established, would obviously lead to some important conclusions, and tend to correct many erroneous speculations.—We are concerned to observe an author of acknowleged merit, like M. DESMAREST, speak in an arrogant and supercilious manner of 'certain Scotch and Genevese philosophers,' who happen to differ from him respecting the formation of basalt.

Memoir on the Comparative Nature of the Gaseous Oxid of Azote, or the Nitrous Oxid of Mr. Davy, and of Nitrous Gas. by MM. FOURCROY, VAUQUELIN, and THENARD.—After some observations on the history of the nitrous oxid, in which is justly ascribed to Dr. Priestley the discovery of most of its properties, except its action on the animal œconomy, the authors give an account of the experiments which they instituted for the purpose of analyzing the two gases. They performed the decomposition by transmitting them over iron filings, in hot earthen tubes. We have then a relation of the effects produced on M. VAUQUELIN, by the respiration of the nitrous oxid; which seems to have partaken more of the nature of asphyxia, than of that increased action which was experienced by Mr. Davy and his friends. On the whole, we do not think that this paper is worthy of the talents of the three chemists whose names appear in the title.

New Experiments on Cow's Milk, by MM. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.—We are here presented with some important additions to the knowlege which we previously possessed, respecting the composition of this fluid. It has been already announced that the acid which is developed during the coagulation of milk, and which was supposed by *Scheele* to be endued with specific properties, is merely the acetic acid, united to a portion of animal matter; and in the paper before us, the authors give in detail the experiments on which the opinion is founded. They also state that milk, when fresh drawn, contains a small quantity of acetic acid: that the phosphate of magnesia, as well as that of lime, has been detected in this fluid; and that it likewise contains a small quantity of iron, probably also in the state of a phosphate. The animal matter which is united to the acetic acid, they suppose to be similar to the gluten in wheat.

Memoir on Guano, or the Natural Manure of the Islands of the South Sea, near the Coast of Peru. By the Same.—M. *Humboldt*, during his travels in South America, observed a singular substance on some of the small islands near the coast of Peru, which is employed for the purpose of manure in the neighbouring parts of the continent, and seems to possess the requisite properties in a very high degree. It forms a stratum of considerable thickness, and is dug up in the way in which we obtain peat in this country. From a chemical analysis, it was found to consist principally of uric acid, partly saturated with lime and ammoniac; and it contains oxalic and phosphoric acids in the same state of combination, as also a quantity of a fatty substance. The origin of the guano is doubtful; it agrees in many particulars with the excrement of birds: but the large masses in which it is obtained are almost incompatible with the idea that it can be derived from a source which appears so inadequate.

Analysis of Tabasheer. By the Same.—This is a peculiar substance, found in the joints of the bamboo. It had been previously ascertained that silex was a principal ingredient in it; and the present analysis shews that, in addition to silex, it contains pot-ash and lime.

Memoir on Jalap. By M. DESFONTAINES.—This valuable article of the *Materia Medica* was long employed as a purgative, before the nature of the plant was known from which it was procured. It was at length discovered in Mexico, and appears to belong to the genus *convolvulus*. We have in this paper an accurate botanical description of the plant, and an account of its natural history, accompanied by two engravings.

Result of the different Methods employed to give to Plates and Bars of Steel the greatest degree of Magnetism. By M. COULOMB.—Referring to the opinions which he has formerly published on this subject, the author remarks that there is a point of saturation, beyond which iron cannot be rendered more magnetical, and that it is of great importance to ascertain with accuracy when the metal has arrived at this condition. The method which he recommends is to suspend the magnet horizontally by means of a silken thread, and to observe the number of oscillations that are performed in a given time; the quickness of the oscillatory motion increasing with the intensity of the power. We have afterward some remarks on the best method of magnetizing bars;—the one recommended by M. COULOMB is nearly similar to that which was formerly proposed by Knight.

Memoir on several Species of Unknown Fossils. By M. DESMAREST.—In this paper, which is the first of a proposed series, we have a minute account of a fossil considerably resembling the oyster. The memoir is accompanied with illustrative engravings.

Chemical Observations on the Art of Scouring or Cleansing Stuffs. By J. A. CHAPTAL.—After having remarked that the art of scouring or cleansing stuffs or cloths of all kinds depends entirely on chemical principles, and requires a very extensive knowlege of the science, in order to explain all the operations that are employed in it, M. CHAPTAL describes in detail the nature of the various kinds of substances by which cloth is injured, and the appropriate means by which they may be removed.—Although we do not find that the paper possesses any thing particularly new, it contains much useful information, clearly stated, and well arranged.

Memoir on the Spongy Substance of the Uterus, submitted to some Experiments, by M. TENON.—In these experiments, portions of the spongy substance of the uterus were immersed in different sorts of fluids; as water, alcohol, urine, &c. As might have been predicted, in some the substance was rendered firmer, in consequence of the coagulation of one or more of its constituent parts; while in others it was softened, from the effects of a partial solution. We do not see that the experiments can lead to any important conclusion; and we think that M. TENON's application of them to the living body is quite inadmissible.

Memoir on the Chemical Nature of Smutted Wheat. By MM. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.—This substance had been previously submitted to experiment, and had been found to manifest acid properties, but the nature of the acid was not ascertained. From the researches of MM. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN, it would seem to be the phosphoric acid, united to ammoniac, magnesia, and lime; the acid, however, existing in excess. It also contains a vegeto-animal matter, a fœtid oil, and a carbonaceous substance. All its natural constituents are quite changed; and it no longer affords gluten, starch, nor sugar.

Memoir on the Discovery of a new Inflammable and Detonating Matter, formed by the Action of Nitric Acid on Indigo and Animal Matter. By the Same.—The nitric acid dissolves indigo with facility, and converts part of it into a substance of a deep yellow colour, and of intensely bitter taste; which, when gently heated, has the property of detonating with considerable violence. A substance, possessed of similar properties, had been formerly procured by other chemists, from different animal matter, and M. *Welther* had even observed its detonation.

Memoir on the Phænomena and Products which Animal Substances afford, when treated with Nitric Acid. By the Same.—The action of nitric acid on animal substances was first accurately noticed by M. *Berthollet*, and led to some important discoveries respecting the composition of these bodies. He, however, principally directed his attention to the gaseous products that arise from this action; while, in the present paper, the authors give a minute account of the change that is produced in the animal matter, and in the acid. These both acquire a deep yellow colour, which appears to be owing to the formation of a peculiar acid substance, considerably similar to that which is described in the preceding paper. The fluid is found to contain sulphate of lime, and oxalate of pot-ash, and likewise a quantity of the malic acid.

Two Memoirs on Crude Platina, on the Existence of several Metals in it, and on a new Species of Metal in this Mineral. By the Same.—These papers contain a number of accurate experiments performed on platina, which, when they were read to the Institute, must have appeared interesting and important. At the time, however, that the French chemists were engaged in these researches, Mr. Tennant and Dr. Wollaston were examining the properties of platina, and carried their discoveries to a considerably greater extent. The properties of the new metal, to which Mr. Tennant has given the name of iridium, are pretty clearly indicated by MM. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN; and they notice some phænomena which must be attributed to the presence of osmium, the other of Mr. Tennant's new metals, but they do not appear to have had the least suspicion of its existence. They conjecture that palladium may be a compound of the new metal, i. e. iridium, and platina. They find that crude platina also contains titanium and chromie; the former existing in the state of an oxid, the latter in that of an acid. They also detected the sulphuret of copper.

Remarks on the Membranous Bag which the Peritonæum furnishes to the Uterus. By M. TENON.—This paper may be considered,

sidered, in some respects, as a sequel to a preceding memoir by the same author, which we noticed above. (P. 468.) After having observed that the back part of the bladder is in immediate contact with the neck of the uterus, he supposes that the urine may transude, and act on this part. We have already expressed our opinion of M. Tenon's experiments, and we are obliged to pass an equally unfavorable judgment on this application of them.

Memoir on the different Kinds of the Mammiferous Genus, named Fourmillier or Myrmecophaga, or Ant-eaters. By B. G. E. Lacépède.—The name of this writer, so celebrated in zoology, will draw the attention of the naturalist to the present paper. He observes that all the animals belonging to this family are remarkable as well for their habits as their forms, and particularly for the small aperture of the mouth; for the length, roundness, and thinness of the tongue; and for the facility with which they can extend it beyond their mouth. It is here stated that this genus Fourmillier contains but three species known to naturalists, viz. *F. Tamanoir*, (*M. Jubata*,) *F. Tamandua-i*, (*M. Tetradactyla*,) and *F. Didactyle*, (*M. Didactyla*). Specimens of each of these may be seen in the National Museum of Natural History.

Memoir on the Measurement of Heights by the aid of the Barometer. By L. Ramond.—In order to ascertain the height of mountains with precision, by means of the barometer, many experiments must be made in different states of the air, and in different degrees of cold and heat. M. Ramond seems fully aware of the numerous errors to which this mode of mensuration is subject, and has sedulously endeavoured to obviate them. He has chosen the seasons most favourable for the operation, has employed the best instruments, has corrected the temperature of the mercury by the thermometer, and has scrupulously compared his results with those that have been obtained by other philosophers. It is impossible for us to give the calculations and tables contained in this very elaborate and extensive paper; which sufficiently proves that, by due attention to all circumstances, measures may be taken by the help of the barometer, with a great degree of exactness.

We have not yet received the other parts of this VIth Vol. of the Society's Reports; and indeed such is the present state of the continent, that it is with difficulty and hazard that any foreign publications are now procured in this country.

Art. III. *Histoire de France*, &c ; *i. e.* The History of France, from the Time of the Gauls to the Fall of the Monarchy. By M. Anquetil. Vols. X. to XIV. inclusive. 12 mo. Paris, 1805. Imported by de Boffe. Price 1l. 5s.

The character of M. Anquetil as a pleasing and judicious narrator has been long established : but if he had yet to acquire that reputation, the present work would ensure it to him. It is now brought to its close ; and though unequal in its several parts, it continues on the whole to deserve the same favourable account which we have given of the former volumes. The firſt of those now before us concludes the account of the brave and noble minded Henry IV. and introduces the interesting reign of Louis XIII ; than which few in the history of France, or that of any other country, more deserve to be studied, since it offers to our view that great master in state affairs, Cardinal *de Richelieu*. Before him it was only when the reins were placed in vigorous hands that France could be said to have a civil government ; when this was not the case, the nobles mocked the royal authority with impunity, civil wars were perpetually occurring, and the protestants formed a sort of *imperium in imperio* : but the haughty and resolute Cardinal introduced the other extreme. This perhaps it was very difficult to avoid on any occasion, but absolutely impossible in the inſtance of a minister who enjoyed for a long time but uncertain credit with his master. While no one, who casts his eye over the annals of this period, can deny that he was sanguinary and unrelenting, it is but fair at the same time to consider the necessity of his situation, and that much of his conduct was laudable. What minister ever discerned more clearly the foreign interests of the state than *Richelieu* ; or who ever pursued them with more ability and success ? He acted on maxims of broad and enlightened policy. In the Valteline, he shewed no respect to the standards of the Pope ; and if he weakened the power of the protestants and annihilated them as a body politic at home, he never was guilty of any infringement of their civil and religious rights, while he was the zealous and efficient ally of the protestant cause in Germany : he, followed by *Mazarin*, prepared the epoch which a monarch of only moderate abilities was able to render most splendid and imposing. It is as struggling with and triumphing over court intrigues, that this writer principally exhibits the cardinal ; and not as connected with those plans of foreign policy, and of internal administration, which display the vast scope of his mind,—the extent of its resourses,—the perseverance, the daring, and the address by which it was characterized. If the reader can guard against bias studiously attempted to be given, he can no where learn so fully what *Richelieu* was, as in the tedious pages of the protestant *Le Vasseur*, the bitter enemy of the Cardinal.

Scarcely ever has any mortal lived who at some moments has not been found off his guard; a remark which applies even to the unbending and vigilant minister of Louis the Just. The Cardinal's adversary saw his opportunity, and availed himself of it; and *Richelieu* felt the disgrace so sensibly, that his firmness had nearly given way. It has been said that he was even meditating a voluntary descent from that elevation on which he appeared to such advantage, and which it cost him so much to reach: but the Pêre Joseph, as is conjectured, roused him to a conduct worthy of his fame. By the advice of that capuchin, he shewed himself openly in the streets of Paris, flattered the people, rallied them on their fears, and spoke as a man prepared for the crisis, and confident of success. This affected security dispelled the apprehensions of the Parisians, the face of things immediately changed, the enrollments filled rapidly, and an army respectable in point of numbers soon turned out: but the error of the enemy did more for *Richelieu* than either his own address or his measures; since, had the Spaniard duly improved his advantages, the capital must have been brought to imminent peril, and the Cardinal have been disgraced. This surprize of *Richelieu* is a lesson to all ministers never to rest too confident of security, but to be always prepared for critical emergencies.

When Louis XIII. heard that the Cardinal was no more, he merely obſerved, "*Behold a great statesman dead.*"

'This short funeral oration,' says the present author, 'embraces all that can be said of him, as it respects his administration. He first adjusted a balance of power in Europe, in which the house of Austria had in anterior times possessed too great a preponderance. He reduced the French protestants to a situation in which they could no longer render themselves formidable. These were the two *chefs d' œuvre* of his administration: but they cost France a multitude of lives. He humbled the great, whom he drew from their castles, in which they were surrounded with a power and influence which had been frequently employed to disturb the state, and transmuted them into mere courtiers. He is accused of having reduced the authority of the high noblesse more from personal interest than from a regard to the good of the people, and with having laid snares for those whom he purposed to ruin; an imputation by no means improbable. There is one kind of praise due to him with which no censure blends, viz. that of improving and advancing the marine, the discipline of the army, foreign commerce, and many other administrative branches. He protected letters, and neglected nothing that could give lustre to the nation: but it is difficult to believe that he really in his heart wished to render the people happy, when we consider how he loaded them with burdens, and when we call to our recollection those acts of authority which often excited the murmurs of the clergy, of the magistracy, and of other orders of the state. His ministry was indeed brilliant, but it was oppressive.

'His imperious conduct towards the rest of the world, and even towards his sovereigns, was the effect of that decisive, peremptory, and inflexible cast of character, which in him extended even to obstinacy. Persuaded of his own capacity and superior talents, he made pretensions to all sorts of reputation. He wrote a book of theological controversy, employed himself on dramatic poetry, and was a self-created judge of authors; the most celebrated of whom incurred his jealousy and disgrace, when they were not so complaisant as seasonably to yield to him. His confidence in his own powers satisfied him not only that he did all well, but that nothing was well which was not done by him. Consequently he appeared in characters the most foreign to his profession, such as in commanding armies in person, instituting criminal prosecutions, ordering the accused to be brought before him, and interrogating them himself. In truth, few persons possessed so completely as he did a turn for detail united with grand views, and a knowlege of the means proper to ensure their success. This is to be collected from his dispatches, from his instructions to ambassadors, and above all from his letters to the king. Their style is lofty, pure, and sententious; they display singular address in the mode of introducing what it was his aim to have favourably received, and in anticipating and obviating objections: so that whether he spoke or wrote he was sure to succeed in having his ideas adopted by his master.'

The Père Joseph so naturally presents himself by the side of the great Cardinal, that we are tempted to submit to our readers another specimen of M. ANQUETIL's pencil.—He rejects the stories which ascribe the death of the capuchin to the jealousy of the first minister; he thinks that their friendship never suffered any interruption; and he quotes the exclamation of *Richelieu* on hearing of his death: "*J'ai perdu mon bras droit*:" *

'The Père Joseph was an indefatigable man. In managing enterprizes, he had all the activity, versatility, and perseverance which were necessary to make them succeed. He had rendered himself familiar with difficulties and fatigues, in missions with regard to reforms in the houses belonging to his order: labours to which his early life had been devoted. In this occupation, he acquired the habit of paying no regard to the views, tastes, and inclinations of men, and of using compulsion when persuasion would not suffice. He penetrated into the interior of cabinets by boldly setting himself forwards, by taking a part in every thing, and by furnishing expedients for all sorts of affairs. His sober and rigid life, his strict compliance with the painful duties of his order, and his care never to share the luxuries and conveniences of the world, except in cases of pressing necessity, secured to him the esteem of the great. He treated them with no kind of ceremony if they refused to comply with his wishes, and spoke to them with the boldness of a man who braves events, and who has nothing to lose. Obdurate, absolute, and habituated to the strictest observance, he was severe in his treatment of others. He discovered no tenderness, except to the congregation of Nuns of Calvary which he had founded; and here the breath of scandal never imputed his sedulous attentions to any unlawful motive. The courtiers found it strange that he distributed favours without retaining any for himself, or his family: the pious, who knew that he sent missionaries to preach the Gospel, little suspected that he set armies in motion to deluge Europe with blood; they were aware that he composed rules for his cloistered brethren, but they little thought that he formed treaties of alliance with heretics. But those who know the world are not ignorant that some heads are capable of the most opposite pursuits. *Richelieu* had no doubt of the fact; and he represented the singular monk, even when dying, as taking a more lively interest in the success of his political operations, than in the exhortations which were addressed to him as a man on the point of dissolution.'

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* "I have lost my right arm."

The severity of the Cardinal has been sometimes laid at the door of the austere capuchin: but it was not perceived that his eminence became more mild when death had deprived him of his able coadjutor. On the contrary, the Cardinal appeared less relenting, and the persecution of the family of *Epernon* followed closely on this event.

Of the domestic intrigues in which the Cardinal was concerned, and by which he was affected, few works give a better idea than that before us; while to supply the exposition of the deep and successful policy, which stamps the character of the statesman, does not seem to be so much in the line of M. ANQUETIL. In detailing the miserable intrigues of the Fronde, the author is very happy; the figure made by *Mazarin* is also described with considerable precision and ability; and the real claims of that skilful statesman are appreciated with much accuracy.

This pleasing and instructive narrator, as if fatigued by his arduous undertaking, falls very much short of his ordinary excellence in his relations of the last three reigns. The splendid era of Louis XIV. does not rouse him: he is tame, very summary in his accounts, and in several particulars incorrect, especially in matters which refer to Great Britain. Due allowance being made for these defects, we regard the work, which is now completed, as an extremely desirable and useful compen-

am; the most commodious that can be put into the hands
young people, and which will be found to answer the pur-
se of the generality of foreigners. It does not affect the value
the volumes in this respect, that they are very much taken
om *Villey* and *Villaret*, and their continuators.

RT. IV. *OEuvres Philosophiques, Historiques, & Litteraires, &c.* The Philosophical, Historical, and Literary Works of D'ALEM-BERT. 12 Vols. 8vo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 5l. 8s.

n the ordinary sense of the term philosophy, our neighbours,
in that instance more correct than ourselves, do not in-
ude physics. The present publication contains none of the
athematical and astronomical performances of the celebrated
ademician whose name it bears, the word *philosophical* refer-
ng only to his *metaphysical* and *moral* works. The French
ress, having now few original productions to employ it, is
bliged to direct its activity to the antient stores of which it
ay with reason boast; and among these, it certainly could
lect none more acceptable to men of culture and taste, than
e volumes which now lie before us. The merits of this well-
nown philosopher, in the abstruse sciences, have very frequent-
come under our notice: but the present collection embraces
different class of labours, to some parts of which only have
e before had occasion to advert. These lay claim to the me-
it of great *finish*, and are eminently distinguished by clearness
f conception and neatness of language, though the compo-
ition may have some redundancies, which probably would not
ave encumbered it if the writer had devoted himself wholly
letters; and the same cause may account for the want of
uency with which his style is chargeable.

Having, on a former occasion, noticed very much at large
he able and elaborate eulogium pronounced on the philoso-
her by *Condorcet* *, we shall now confine ourselves to traits
f him omitted in that account, and which are supplied
y the various details that are collected together in the first of
hese volumes.

In the memoirs composed by himself, he informs us that
n taking his second degree in arts, he commenced a course
f law studies, and was admitted an advocate. His attention,
owever, during this period, was given to the mathematics.
He had the assistance of an instructor, who, if he was not

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* See Rev. Vol. lxxvi. p. 238.

profound, had clear and distinct notions as far as his knowledge extended; and this person was the only master whom D'ALEMBERT ever conſulted. The taste of the pupil for mathematics grew more and more confirmed; and the time of the law-noviciate was wholly absorbed by this pursuit. Without adequate instruction, without books, and without a friend to advise and to solve difficulties, as has been remarked by his eulogist, he had recourse to the public libraries, and derived his information from the hurried reading of which they admitted. He thus gained ſome advances, and even made what he considered as discoveries, but which he afterward, not without a mixture of mortification and satisfaction, found in other books. His friends, however, being desirous of his advancement in the world, persuaded him to discontinue his mathematical studies, in order to adopt some other which would be more profitable. With this view, and as being less foreign from his natural bias, but not from any predilection for the profession, he began to study medicine. In order to follow, without distraction, his new pursuit, he proposed entirely to abandon the mathematics, and consigned to a friend his few books on that subject: but the books gradually and imperceptibly found their way back to the owner; and at the end of a year, he renounced medicine altogether, and gave himself up decidedly to his predominant taste. So completely was he devoted to his favourite science, that for years he wholly neglected the belles lettres, and did not resume them till some years after his admission into the Academy, and about the time at which he began to write in the Encyclopedie. The preface to that work is here described as 'the quintessence of the mathematical, philosophical, and literary acquisitions made by him in a course of twenty years of study.'

Frederick the Great was the first royal patron of the philosopher; and a trait, which is very honorable to that prince, is preserved in a letter from him to D'ALEMBERT, respecting the destruction of the order of Jesuits. "Though encouraged," (says Frederick,) "by the examples of other princes, I shall not banish the Jesuits because they are unfortunate; I shall do them no harm, being very sure that I shall prevent them from injuring me; and I do not oppress them, because I know how to keep them within the line of their duty." This able and magnanimous ruler was above dreading any mischiefs from toleration.

The portrait which D'ALEMBERT drew of his own character, at the request of a lady, shews a fair and candid mind, and has all the appearance of extreme correctness. Speaking of himself in the third person, he remarks:

' It is said that his physiognomy has an ironical and malignant st: it is true that the ludicrous forcibly strikes him, and as he perhaps s some facility in seizing it, it may be that the impression which makes on his mind is expressed in his countenance.'—' His con- rsation is very unequal, sometimes serious, and sometimes gay, ac- rding to the state of his mind; he is often little on his guard, but never tiresome nor pedantic. It is obvious at first sight that he s devoted the greater part of his life to profound studies: but he times shews a gaiety which is even childish; and this contrast be- veen schoolboy behaviour, and the reputation which he has attained the sciences, causes him to please generally, without any effort on s part. He seldom disputes, and never with eagerness; not because is not wedded, at least in some cases, to his own ideas, but because feels too little desire of gaining an ascendancy over others, to take y pains for converting them to his opinion. Besides, with the ex- ption of the exact sciences, he thinks that nothing is so clear and cisive, as not to leave room for difference of sentiment; and his fa- urite maxim is, " that almost in every thing, men may say what ey chuse."

In appreciating his intellectual claims, he describes distinct- ess of conception and soundness of judgment as the charac- ristics of his mind:

' Living,' he continues, ' in retirement, and employed in study ll he had passed the age of twenty-five, he entered the world not till te, and never pleased much in it, he could never bend to learn its sages and its language, and he perhaps indulges a sort of vanity hich leads him to despise them: nevertheless, he is not unpolished, ecause he is never gross or rude; though he is sometimes uncivil rough ignorance or inattention. The compliments which are paid o him embarrass him, because he has not at command the prescribed orms by which they are returned: his conversation has neither gal- ntry nor grace; and when he says obliging things, it is because they ccord with his real sentiments, and are addressed to those whom he oves. The genuine basis of his character consists in an honesty and n openness which are sometimes blunt, but never rude.

' Impatient and choleric even to violence, that which opposes and hwarts him makes on him the most lively impression: but his wrath isappears as soon it is expressed: in truth, he is very gentle, and asily governed, provided that the design is kept out of his sight; for is love of independence extends to fanaticism, and goes so far as to nake him refuse that which is agreeable to him, when it is in any way onnected with constraint;—a disposition which made one of his riends say that *he was a slave to liberty*.

' Some persons impute malignity to him, because he amuses himelf at the expence of silly pretenders who fatigue him; and if this e malignity, it is the sole species of it with which he is chargeable. It would drive him to despair to render any one miserable, even among hose who have sought to injure him. He is not insensible to offences, but he only avenges himself by refusing his friendship and his confidence to those against whom he has cause of complaint.

'Without family or connections of any kind, left to himself from his tender years, habituated to a confined and obscure mode of life, born as it were for himself alone, with some talent and little passion, he found in study and in his natural gaiety sufficient resources; he raised himself to consideration in the world without the assistance of any one, and even without any great exertions on his own part.

'No man was ever less jealous of the talents and success of others, or more readily applauded them if they were unaccompanied by pride or presumption; where he discovers aught of this sort, he is severe, caustic, and perhaps unjust.'

The philosopher denies that his vanity was so excessive as it was represented: for a moment, he admits, it is very much alive to blame or praise: but he asserts that in the second instant his mind recovers its balance, and views eulogiums with indifference and satire with contempt.

Though he is unquestionably to be placed in the first rank of mathematicians, he here makes a claim to exquisite sensibility. 'His soul,' he tells us, 'loved to lay it itself open to every tender sentiment; at one and the same time all gaiety, and yet ever disposed to melancholy, he finally became wholly resigned to this latter feeling; which inclination to self affliction disposed him in favour of the gloomy and the pathetic.'

'With such a disposition, (he observes) we are not to be surprized if in his youth he was devoted to the most vivid, tender, and delicious of the passions, though distraction and solitude kept him for a while ignorant of it. The sentiment was asleep, if we may so express it, at the bottom of the soul, but when roused it became terrible; love was the source only of misery to him; and the mortifications which it occasioned gave him for a long time a disgust to men, and even to study itself. After having employed his earlier years in research and meditation, he discovered, like the wise man, the vanity of human knowlege, and seemed to adopt the sentiment expressed in the Aminta of Tasso, that all the time not spent in love was lost.'

We suppose that to many of our readers, to whom the name and character of the philosopher are familiar, this trait will excite surprize. Can it be that this is said, and truly said of himself by one of the first mathematicians of his age? Yes, the statement is completely verified by his private history. It appears that for a series of years this distinguished person was the lover, and during several of them, the *ill-treated* lover of a Mademoiselle *d'Espinasse*, a woman of talents; first the humble friend of the well known Madame *Du Deffant*, then discarded by her through jealousy, and, in consequence of that ill usage, placed at the head of a very interesting *coterie*, of which D'ALEMBERT made one.—It does not appear at what period his passion for this lady became of the tender kind; that at first it met with a due return is to be collected: but the regards of the fair seem to have been very capricious, and to have been attracted by different persons.

Although he lived in the same house with the object of his passion, the innocence of the parties was never questioned. The lady is said to have possessed an ardent mind, and a romantic fancy. Though not handsome, she excelled in all the arts of pleasing, and she cherished hopes of engaging the affections of some of the persons of rank who frequented her circle. The celebrated *Guibert*, who united to a military character the talent of writing, was at one time the object of her partiality: but to him succeeded a young Spanish Marquis, of high birth. Whether it was owing to love or enthusiasm, it is certain that this noble youth became seriously attached to her; and the intelligence induced his family to hasten his return, in order to marry him in his own country. This roving disposition of the fair had no effect on the regard of *pauvre* D'ALEMBERT: he was still her faithful swain, though we are told that he experienced not only neglect, but was exposed to unpleasant effects arising from the ill humour of the disappointed damsel. Of the fetters in which the philosopher was held, we may judge when we are informed that he was her messenger to the post-office, and the bearer of the letters of her lover, which he was required to deliver to her when she rose in the morning.

Some time after his return to Spain, the young grandee fell dangerously ill, and medical advice was every where sought. At the instigation of the enamoured fair, D'ALEMBERT was obliged to induce a Parisian physician to certify that the air of France was necessary to the recovery of the noble patient; who accordingly set out for Paris, but died on the journey;—and Mademoiselle *D'Espinasse* did not long survive this shock. Unkindly as he had been treated by her, the *philosopher* was inconsolable for her loss, and bemoaned the solitude in which he found himself. It was vain to remind him of the change in his mistress. "Yes," replied he, "she was changed, but I was not; she lived no longer for me, but I always lived for her. Since she has ceased to be, I know not why I desire to exist. Who will now sooth my bitter moments? what now remains to me, when I return home? I find only her shadow. Home to me exhibits all the horrors of a tomb!"

Let the reader reflect on the hard offices which his mistress assigned to D'ALEMBERT, and on the state of his mind when death had severed them; and let him recollect that this person was at the head of the philosophers of the age! He will then be tempted to exclaim, " Alas, how little does philosophy improve the condition of human life!"—While in this account the dignity and force of philosophy appear to disadvantage, it is impossible to exhibit in a stronger light the paramount authority of the sex in France. The various memoirs of this celebrated person, which are prefixed to this edition of part of his works, have great value, as they describe the manners of the latter years of the French monarchy, and give an insight into the maxims and temper of that philosophical sect in which D'ALEMBERT was a leader. In this view, they form very interesting documents for history.

The present collection contains the celebrated preliminary discourse to the *Encyclopedie*; the Essay on Men of Letters; The Memoirs of Queen Christina; a Translation of select parts of Tacitus; Elements of Philosophy, and Dissertations on various subjects,—eloquence, poetry, the latinity of modern dialects, &c.; Apology for Study; Elements of Music; The Destruction of the Jesuits; and a great number of Eulogies.

Whatever grounds might exist for suspicion, no positive proofs of the infidelity of D'ALEMBERT had been given till the appearance of his letters, which were published after his death. It has been observed that his works furnish no direct evidence of this nature; and in some of them he speaks with much feeling of the beauties of certain parts of Scripture, while he renders great justice to the celebrated preachers of the court of Louis XIV. *La Harpe* admits that he has not found a line in them expressive of hostility to religion; but that in some parts of his eulogies he mentions it with respect, and even with an appearance of being impressed by it.—When *La Harpe*'s conversion had abated much of his enthusiasm in favour of this philosopher, he thus speaks of his grand literary atchievement:

" It was perhaps the union of a genius for science with the talent of writing, which rendered the preliminary discourse to the Encyclopedie so distinguishing, and which called forth the very unusual praise that was bestowed on that fine composition. It may be regarded as the vestibule of science, and it is regular and noble; it is constructed with a firm and steady hand, all its proportions are just, and all its ornaments are select. This discourse alone would suffice to secure to its author the first reputation as a man of letters. It indicates a sound and comprehensive mind, just taste, and a pure style.

" The Elements of Philosophy," continues the same author, " are inferior to the Discourse, on account of the disproportion of the objects treated: but they bespeak a judicious mind and an elegant pen. Similar praise belongs to the greater part of the eulogies. His Memoirs of Christina, and his Essay on Men of Letters, are eminently ingenious. His translations of Tacitus, if they do not preserve the force of the original, retain its beauty; and this essay will always be of great utility to those who employ themselves on translation. All these pieces are valuable additions to literature."

A pillar of the new Gallican church, M. *Coëtlosquet*, Bishop of Limoges, bears the following testimony to the philosopher: "I did not know his person, but I have always heard that his manners were simple, and his conduct without reproach. With regard to his works, I read them frequently, and I find in them much of talent, a great portion of illumination, and sound morality. If he did not think so well as he wrote, it was his misfortune: no person has a right to interrogate his conscience."—In this honorable judgment of the French prelate, every liberal mind will join. Those who know D'ALEMBERT only from his posthumous letters will naturally entertain a strong prejudice against his works: but they may be assured that between his productions during his life, and those which were made public since his death, the greatest difference prevails; and that, while they are justly shocked by the latter, they will find that many of the former possess high and distinguished merit.

ART. V. *De l'Influence de la Nuit*, &c.; *i. e.* On the Influence of Night over Diseased Persons. A Collection of Memoirs which have obtained Prizes from the Medical Society at Brussels, in answer to the following Questions proposed by the Society; *does the Night possess any Influence over Persons who are ill? Are there Diseases in which this Influence is more or less apparent? What is the Physical Cause of this Influence?* Published by order of the Society. 8vo. pp. 400. Brussels. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s.

In a preliminary discourse, delivered by M. *Fournier*, secretary to the society, we are informed that the prize originally proposed on this occasion was a gold medal, of the value of 200 francs, embellished with the portraits of *Lomius*, *Palfinus*, and *Vesalius*: 'but the society thought that it would be more flattering to the conqueror, to substitute for these the effigies of the great Napoleon, the model of heroes, the terror of his enemies, the restorer of empires, and the protector of the sciences and the arts.' The number of candidates was fourteen; and though the judges were unanimous in the decision of the prize, they perceived so much merit in five of the rejected papers, that they resolved to reward these by decreeing to them two secondary and three accessory prizes. The six memoirs are all printed in the volume before us, and we have perused them not without interest; for although we do not think that any one of the writers has given a complete answer to the question, or has thrown much new light on the subject, yet they tend to exhibit the state of medical opinion in the empire of France, and afford a certain criterion of the relative progress of science in that country and in our own island. We deem it not unfair to regard the memoirs in this point of view, both from the very flattering terms in which the secretary speaks of their merits, and from the respectable list of names which is prefixed to the volume as composing the Medical Society of Brussels.

The essay to which the prize was adjudged was written by M. DE LA PRADE, physician to the civil and military hospital at Montbrison. After having remarked that the obvious circumstance in which the night differs from the day consists in the absence of light, the author begins to discuss the question, how far light can produce any effect on the animal body. This question he answers affirmatively; and he attributes to the action of light a variety of very important operations in the animal œconomy. He supposes that light promotes the cutaneous transpiration, and increases the discharge of carbon from the skin; that the diseases of debility, which are generated by confinement in dungeons, depend principally on the absence of light; that the depressing effect which cloudy weather produces on some constitutions is owing to the same cause; and that a part of the unhealthiness of marshy situations depends on 'the too great obliquity of the rays of light, which do not arrive at the body until after having undergone an infinity of refractions, in an atmosphere charged with vapor, and having been proportionably weakened.' These ideas, it must be admitted, are very different from those which are generally adopted on the subject; and we do not find that the author attempts to establish them on any new experiments or observations; he is satisfied with the convenient support of analogy, and deems it sufficient to remind the society of the effect of light on the vegetable kingdom.

M. DE LA PRADE afterward notices the influence of darkness on the imagination and passions, which he conceives to be as remarkable as its operation on the body, and in like manner to depend on the deficiency of the stimulus of light. These effects, both mental and corporeal, are supposed to be immediately sedative, and to induce a state of direct debility. Hence it follows that they must be injurious in those diseases which consist in a defect of vital power, and, on the contrary, beneficial in such as are of an opposite nature. We do not observe any more regard to fact and experience in this part of the essay than in the commencement. The author appears to be easily led by remote analogies, while he passes over the most palpable

pable truths when they counteract his hypothetical doctrines. As an illustration of our opinion, we shall quote a paragraph from that part of the essay in which, examining the effects of light on particular diseases, he is led to inquire whether the privation of light has any influence on the formation of pus. 'We are induced,' he remarks, 'to believe that it has, when we observe the frequency of cutaneous suppurations and swellings on the surface of the body, among prisoners who have been long shut up in dark dungeons: many military physicians have told me that they made this observation during the late wars. Other causes, such as bad nourishment, the moisture of the dungeons, chagrin, and a sedentary life, no doubt concur with the darkness to produce this species of cachexy, this purulent diathesis, to make use of an expression consecrated by *De Haen.*' We may venture to assert that such reasoning would not have obtained the prize from any medical societies in this country.

The memoir which received the second prize was written by M. AYMONE, a physician in Piedmont. Like the former, this author attributes a considerable part of the effects of night to the absence of light: but, in addition, he notices the diminished temperature of the air, the descent of vapors which had been raised during the day, and the deficiency of oxygen. This last circumstance he assumes as a matter of fact, although it is directly contrary to the most correct experiments that have been performed on the subject, which prove that the chemical composition of the atmosphere is the same at all periods, and in all places. M. AYMONE, though he conceives that other circumstances, besides the absence of light, have an effect on the body, agrees with M. *de la Prade* in supposing that the operation of night principally depends on a physical change, and that this change produces a sedative operation on the body. He also coincides with him in thinking that this change must be favourable in inflammatory diseases, and injurious in those of a contrary nature.—We are of opinion that this essay, like that of M. *de la Prade*, affords a very inadequate solution of the question: but, at the same time, we must acknowlege that the author has indulged less in fanciful analogies, and has not erred so much in perverting facts to meet his own hypothesis.

The paper to which the other secondary prize was adjudged, from its size, and, we may add, from the nature of its contents, is in our judgment by far the most important in the volume. It appears, indeed, to have been considered in this point of view by the society themselves, since they bestow on it the highest commendation; yet they had it not in their power to assign to it the first prize, because it was originally presented to them in a very imperfect state; and we learn in a note subjoined by the author, that the delay in the completion of it was owing to his having been at Paris during the coronation of the emperor. It is written by M. MURAT, physician at Montpelier. In the general view which he takes of the subject, he differs considerably from the writers of either of the preceding papers. He is not satisfied with pointing out the nature of the physical difference existing between night and day, and with examining the effect which this change will produce on the body, but he farther inquires whether, according to the laws of animal œconomy, independently of any external circumstance, a periodic change does not take place in the functions and powers of the body. This he asserts is the case; and he endeavours to establish his position by a reference to a numerous collection of facts, and a great weight of authority. The diurnal revolution in the state of the animal œconomy was first observed by Hippocrates; and the author takes occasion not only to support his own opinion by this celebrated name, but enters into all the speculations which the father of physic connected with it. He speaks of the four temperaments of Hippocrates as depending on the different constitutions, warm, cold, moist, or dry; of their analogy to the four seasons of the year, the four ages of man, &c.; and he infers that, in like manner, the diurnal period must consist of four parts. In all this he appears to repose full confidence, and to dwell on it not as a mere ebullition of the fancy, but as a sober train of reasoning that ought to influence the judgment.

After having attempted to establish the division of the day into four periods, and assigned to each their characteristic disposition, the writer next shews that in the evening a feverish state is always induced; and by combining this circumstance with the phænomena of fever in general, he thinks that the four following varieties will be formed; simple nocturnal fever, remittent nocturnal fever, nocturnal fever with exacerbation, and remittent nocturnal fever with exacerbation. Each of these species then becomes the subject of distinct consideration; and the author afterward enumerates several other nocturnal diseases, which are not indeed attended with perceptible fever, and yet would seem to depend on the diurnal revolution which takes place in the system. This part of the discussion is treated with considerable minuteness, and with a great display of learning, but in a manner which, we may venture to assert, could afford little gratification or instruction to an English reader. It abounds with references to the old systematic writers; and on their dubious authority the most marvellous histories are related, without any intimation of the weak support on which they rest.

At the same time, however, that M. MURAT seems to possess so intimate an acquaintance with the writings of the antients, he appears to be totally ignorant of many of the modern doctrines. The subject of hectic fever naturally falls under his consideration, and he employs a number of pages in proving that it does not depend on the absorption of pus into the blood; a doctrine which he seems to consider as quite original, and which he does not venture to bring forwards until he has apologized for his temerity in starting so novel an opinion. The whole work, indeed, has more the appearance of being the production of a scholar who values himself on the extent of his learning, than of a practitioner who is intimately acquainted with the phænomena of disease. Its writer betrays a total want of judgment in the selection of his authorities, and manifests that fondness for speculation which strongly characterizes the medical tyro.—The style of his memoir is completely *French*, being highly flowery and rhetorical, and filled with apostrophes and ejaculations. We present our readers with a short specimen, taken from the commencement. 'What various and painful sentiments, Gentlemen, must our common parent have experienced, when he saw, for the first time in his life, the beautiful day yield to night! Oh Adam! return to earth, and tell us whether the astonishment which you felt at the sight of darkness was as great as your affright! What punishment did you undergo in one day! The anger of a God freezes you with dread; and, at the same moment, this night which surrounds you becomes for you, and for the delicate Eve, the terror of terrors.'—Yet the secretary, in his preliminary report, informs us that this memoir is written 'in a pure and didactic style.'

Having now entered pretty fully into the merits of the dissertations to which the principal prizes were adjudged by the society, we consider it as unnecessary to protract this article by adding any account of the remaining papers. The abstract which we have given will, we think, be sufficient to afford our readers a tolerably accurate idea of the contents of the volume; and consequently, as far as we may be permitted to make the inference, of the state of medical opinions in the great empire.

Art. VI. *Asiatic Researches;* or Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal, for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature, of Asia Vol. the Eighth *. 4to. pp. 518. Printed at Calcutta. 1805. Imported by Cadell and Davies. London. Price 1l. 11s. 6d.

It always gives us pleasure to receive the reports of a body of men whose objects are so commendable, so important, and so fertile as those of the Asiatic Society. We had our fears that the loss of the inestimable founder of this institution might even be fatal to its continuance; but though it must ever be severely felt, we are happy in obtaining proofs that the members are still zealous in the cause for which they are associated, and active in their exertions to promote it.

The present volume, however, affords us no account of the internal state of the society; of the countenance which it still derives from "men in authority;" nor of the aid which it obtains from its existing president, by whom no *Discourses* are here delivered. The evidence of the papers themselves, then, is our only information respecting the proceedings of this learned body; and to them we must now apply for this purpose.

Our attention is first directed to a communication intitled *Observations on the Remarkable Effects of Sol lunar Influence in the Fevers of India; with the Scheme of an Astronomical Ephemeris for the Purposes of Medicine and Meteorology.* *By* Francis Balfour, Esq. M. D.—Dr. Balfour here calls the attention of the society to a subject on which he has before given his sentiments to the public; viz. the effects which planetary attraction exercises on the human body, more particularly when under the influence of fever. In the healthy state, these effects are not sufficiently powerful to become manifest: but when, from any circumstance, debility is induced, the sol-lunar action is supposed to be capable of producing a febrile paroxysm. These paroxysms, originating from the same cause with the tides, have a tendency to take place at the same times; and on this principle the author explains the periodical accessions, which constitute all the different types that fevers assume. The following are the fundamental positions of his doctrine, and the general theorem which he deduces from them:

'1st. That the paroxyms of fevers are produced by the action of *sol-lunar influence.*

'2dly. That there is, however, a certain state of the human constitution, denominated the *paroxysmal disposition,* required to concur with the exacerbations of sol-lunar power in exciting and reiterating paroxysms, in such a manner as to form fevers.

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* For Vols. vi. and vii. see M. R. Vols. xlv. and xlvi. N. S.

' 3dly. That in the course of the disease there takes place in the constitution a certain state, denominated the *critical disposition*, which tending gradually to *maturity*, at length concurs with certain remissions of sol-lunar power in producing a crisis; by which salutary change the tendency to paroxysm is diminished or removed, so as to bring fevers to an end after certain intervals of time.

' *Theorem*. The fluctuating force of sol-lunar influence coinciding and co-operating in all its various stages and degrees, with the various modifications of the paroxysmal disposition, excites febrile paroxysms to attack on all the days of the neaps and springs, and supports and reiterates them, according to various types, until the commencement of different neaps; at which junctures the maturity of the critical disposition happening to concur with the periodical decline of sol-lunar influence, these paroxysms then subside and come to a termination or crisis: and thus form different successions of paroxysms constituting fevers of various length or duration.'

According to Dr. B., not only the general character of the disease but even its particular symptoms are materially affected by this sol-lunar attraction: for he observes that a regular fluctuation occurs in the color and consistence of the urine in fever, corresponding to the positions of the sun and moon; and that the appearance of eruptions, sores, and ulcers, undergoes similar changes.

Proceeding on this principle, Dr. BALFOUR has found that fevers are most frequent about the equinoxes; at which periods, the influence of the sun and moon is more powerfully excited, and the tides rise to greater heights. In support of his doctrine, and to shew that the same effects are produced in other quarters of the globe, he refers to some remarks made by Dr. Currie on the fevers in Liverpool; from which it appears that in that town, during a period of 17 years, the disease prevails more frequently at the equinoxes than at the solstices. From Dr. Currie's statement, Dr. BALFOUR deduces these propositions:

' 1st. That whilst the temperature of the season in the spring was passing from cold to hot, the number of typhus fevers *rose* about $\frac{1}{14}$ above the common standard.

' 2dly. That whilst the temperature of the season in the autumn was passing from hot to cold, the number of typhus fevers *rose* in like manner about $\frac{1}{13}$ above the common standard.

' 3dly. That during the months of summer, when the heat of the season is greatest, the number of typhus fevers *fell* beneath the common standard about $\frac{1}{14}$;— and

' 4thly. That during the months of winter, when the heat of the season is least, the number of typhus fevers *fell* in like manner below the common standard in the same proportion, about $\frac{1}{13}$.'

As may be conceived, Dr. B. regards this as a striking illustration of his doctrine: but we confess that we are more disposed to consider it only as an example of the greater effect produced by a variable temperature, than by the extreme of heat or cold which occurs in England.

The existence of this sol-lunar influence is a mere question of fact; and although we believe it is not to be discovered in this country more than in India, where all meteorological phænomena are much more uncertain, and are affected by many incidental circumstances, we must acknowlege that a powerful body of evidence exists in favor of its agency in tropical regions. Its effect on the ocean is most evident, and perhaps we may add on the atmosphere; and therefore we see nothing repugnant to the principles of philosophy in supposing that it may affect the human body. Farther experience and observation alone can decide the inquiry.

Extract from a Journal, during the Late Campaign in Egypt. By Captain C. B. Burr.—We are here presented with accounts of the temple of Dendera, or Tentyris, similar to those which have been recently published by the French. Speaking of the figures on the walls, Captain B. observes,

> 'The dresses, the utensils, canoes, and many of the articles of the domestic œconomy of the ancient *Egyptians*, are herein represented in the most minute and pleasing manner; and the entire state of these figures, not only in shape, but colouring, conveys the most perfect idea of the habits of the times. A vast resemblance exists in the dresses with those at present worn in *India*; the *cholie* of the woman, the *moond*, and many others, claiming a direct comparison. It has often struck me, and never more forcibly than in contemplating this temple and its sculptures, that there must have existed a much greater affinity in the customs of, and of course a more friendly intercourse amongst, the nations of the *East* formerly, when they pursued one system of worship, than since the introduction of *Christianity*, and *Mahometanism*.'

Some natives of Eastern Asia having accompanied our troops, Captain Burr had an opportunity of witnessing the impression which these relics of Egyptian idolatry, having perhaps the same origin with that of the *Hindus*, produced on their minds:

> 'Our *Indian* followers, who had attended us, beheld the scene before them with a degree of admiration, bordering on veneration; arising not only from the affinity they traced in several of the figures to their own deities, but from their conviction of its being the work of some *Râcshas*, who they conceived had visited the earth, to transmit to an admiring posterity a testimony of supernatural talents.'

Of the Origin of the Hindu Religion. By J. D. Patterson Esq.—That "more was meant than met the ear," or the eye, in the religious institutions of the Heathens, is very certain;

since we are informed of mysteries intended to explain to the initiated that which, under figures and ceremonies, was concealed from the vulgar. It is to be lamented that none of the books used in the mysteries have descended to us; and that we are forced in a great measure to appeal to conjecture, for explanations of their sacred fables and mythologies. The deities of the Iliad, though they play so absurd a part, and must impress all persons of reflection with a contempt for the idolatry of the Greeks, might originally have been invented as mere signs of the parts and powers of nature; and it is highly probable that the Metamorphoses of Ovid have a meaning to which, not having *the key*, we cannot attain. Hieroglyphic writing having introduced an extensive use of emblems, they were employed to express philosophical as well as other ideas; and it is natural to conclude that when, in after ages, these were attempted to be interpreted, they occasioned gross errors and mistakes. It may reasonably be supposed that the mythology of the Greeks, which is of very high antiquity, is founded on symbolical representations; and in many instances they appear to have been ignorant of its original purport. We can perhaps scarcely expect that, after a lapse of ages, we should completely enlighten the darkness which rests on this mysterious subject: but our connection with the east affords an opportunity for making the experiment, and such essays as that before us cannot fail of being gratefully received by the learned world. Mr. Patterson's account of *the Origin of the Hindu Religion* contains at least a plausible conjecture, which is offered to the public with much diffidence; and which, if it be admitted, will help to explain Grecian as well as Hindu fables and rites. We cannot more neatly exhibit his view of the subject than by employing his own words:

'The *Hindu* religion appears to me to have been originally a reform of existing systems, when the arts and sciences had arrived at a degree of perfection; that it was intended to correct the ferociousness and corruption of the times, and to reduce mankind to an artificial order on a firmer base of polity; that it was the united effort of a society of sages, who retained the priesthood to themselves and rendered it hereditary in their families by the division of the people into separate casts; that it was supported by the regal authority, which, while it controuled, it supported in return: that it was promulgated in all its perfection at once as a revelation of high antiquity, to stamp its decrees with greater authority; and that it was founded on pure Deism, of which the *Gayatri*, translated by Sir William Jones, is a striking proof; but to comply with the gross ideas of the multitude who required a visible object of their devotion, they pers
three great attributes of the deity.

'The first founders of the *Hindu* religion do not appear to have had the intention of bewildering their followers with metaphysical definitions; their description of the deity was confined to those attributes which the wonders of the creation so loudly attest: his almighty power to create; his providence to preserve; and his power to annihilate or change what he has created.

'In fact, no idea of the deity can be formed beyond this: it is simple, but it forces conviction upon the mind. This simplicity however was destroyed, when they attempted to describe these attributes to the eye, by hieroglyphics; perhaps letters had not then been invented: in which case they could have no other mode of instruction than by signs and emblematical figures.

'In order to impress on the minds of men a sense of their total and absolute dependance on him, by whom they live, and from whom they have their being, they invented the hieroglyphical figures of

BRAHMA ———— VISHNU ———— SI'VA.
As Emblematical of
Creation ———— Preservation ———— Destruction.
These they referred to
Matter ———— Space ———— Time.
And painted them
Red ———— Blue ———— White.

To represent substance.
To represent the apparent colour of space.
In contrast to the black night of eternity.

BRAHMA had originally five heads, alluding to the five elements; hence in one of the forms given to SI'VA, as the Creator, he is likewise represented with five heads. But the introduction of images soon led the mass of mankind to consider these personified attributes as real distinct personages; and as one error brings with it many others in its train, men separated into sects, each selecting one of the triad, the particular object of their devotion, in preference to and exclusive of the others: the followers of VISHNU and SI'VA invented a new symbol each, to ascribe to their respective divinity the attribute of creation. This contention for pre-eminence ended in the total suppression of the worship of BRAHMA, and the temporary submission of the sect of VISHNU, to the superiority of SI'VA; but this did not last long; the two rival sects raised crusades against each other; hordes of armed fanatics, under the titles of *Sannyasis* and *Vairágís* enlisted themselves as champions of their respective faith; the former devoted their lives in support of the superiority of SI'VA, and the latter were no less zealous for the rights of VISHNU: alternate victory and defeat marked the progress of a religious war, which

for

or ages continued to harrass the earth and inflame mankind against each other.

'Plutarch has said of the *Egyptians*, that they had inserted nothing into their worship without a reason, nothing merely fabulous, nothing superstitious (as many suppose): but their institutions have either a reference to morals, or to something useful in life; and many of them bear a beautiful resemblance of some facts in history, or some appearance in nature; perhaps in the commencement to lead mankind into superstition was not intended nor foreseen; it is a weed that springs up naturally when religion is blended with mystery and burdened with perplexing ceremonials. The mass of mankind lost sight of morality in the multiplicity of rites, and as it is easier to practise ceremonies, than to subdue the passions, ceremonies gradually become substitutes for real religion, and usurp the place of morality and virtue.'

Mr. P. supposes that the religions of Hindustan and Egypt were identical; and concluding *Brahma* to be synonymous with *Osiris*, and *Osiris* with *Bacchus*, he endeavours to account for the strange representations which Grecian writers afford of this mythological personage:

'BACCHUS, or OSIRIS, was represented by an equilateral triangle; SI'VA has the same hieroglyphic: the worship of BACCHUS was the same as that which is paid to SI'VA; it had the same obscenities, the same bloody rites, and the same emblem of the generative power.

'In BACCHUS may be traced the characteristicks of each of the personages in the *Indian* triad; and this may be accounted for by supposing the *Greeks* to have been deceived by the title OSIRIS: they considering it as the name of an individual, mingled the characters and adventures of all the three in one personage. BACCHUS may possibly be derived from a title of VRIHASPATI, VA'G I'S'A, the lord of speech, which might be applied to BRAHMA' as the husband of SARASWATI' the goddess of speech. The *Greeks* called him BROMIOS, as Sir William Jones says without knowing why; and he was styled by the *Romans* BRUMA: his feasts were celebrated for several days at the winter solstice; from him they were called *Brumalia*, and the winter solstice itself *Bruma*.

'The crescent of SI'VA may have suggested the horns of BACCHUS; and his army of satyrs, and victories in *India*, shew the resemblance of this part of his character to VISHNU as RA'MA, who, with his army of monkies, overran the peninsula of *India*.

'It was a common practice with the *Greeks* to disguise their own ignorance of the purport of a foreign word, by supplying a word of a similar sound, but different meaning, in their own language, and inventing a story to agree with it: thus *Méru* or the north pole, the supposed abode of the *Dévatás* being considered as the birth place of the God, gave rise to the fable of BACCHUS's second birth from the thigh of JUPITER, because *Meros*, a *Greek* word approaching *Méru* in sound, signifies the thigh in that language.'

The immoralities of idolatry are a proper subject of reprobation: but it cannot be fairly imagined that those symbols which occasioned them were originally intended to produce this effect. Mr. P.'s explanation of the most objectionable emblem of paganism is at least ingenious:

'Two sects sprang up. The one personified the whole universe, and the dispensations of providence in the regulation thereof, into a Goddess; this sect retained the female symbol only, and denominated themselves *Sácta*, as worshippers of the *Sacti*. or female power, exclusively; which they called *Pracrĭti*; and which, we, from the *Latin*, term nature.

'The other sect insisted, that there was but one, eternal, first cause; that every thing, existing, derived its existence, from the sole energy of that first cause (*Niranjan*).

'In order, therefore, to express their ideas of the absolute independence of this supreme power upon any extra co-operation, they took for their symbol the male emblem, unconnected with that of the female; a third sect likewise arose, which intended to reconcile the idea of the unity of godhead, with that of the existence of matter and spirit; they, therefore, contended, that the union of those two principles was so mysteriously intimate, as to form but one being, which they represented, by a figure half male, and half female, and denominated HARA-GAURI', and ARDHANA'RI'IS'WARA. It is probable, that the idea of obscenity was not originally attached to these symbols: and it is likely, that the inventors themselves might not have foreseen the disorders, which this worship would occasion amongst mankind. Profligacy eagerly embraces what flatters its propensities, and ignorance follows blindly, wherever example excites: it is therefore no wonder, that a general corruption of manners should ensue, increasing, in proportion as the distance of time involved the original meaning of the symbol in darkness and oblivion. Obscene mirth became the principal feature of the popular superstition, and was, even in after times, extended to, and intermingled with, gloomy rites and bloody sacrifices:—an heterogeneous mixture, which appears totally irreconcileable, unless by tracing the steps, which led to it. It will appear, that the engrafting of a new symbol, upon the old superstition, occasioned this strange medley. The sect of VISHNU was not wholly free from the propensity of the times to obscene rites; it had been united in interest with that of SI'VA, in their league against the sect of BRAHMA; as was expressed by an image, called HAR-HERI, half SI'VA, and half VISHNU. This union seems to have continued till the time, when an emblem of an abstract idea, having been erected into an object of worship, introduced a revolution in religion, which had a violent and extended effect upon the manners and opinions of mankind.'

In the prosecution of Mr. P.'s undertaking, he sufficiently shews in what way superstitious rites grew out of mistaken symbolical representations: but we cannot follow him through all his details.—Mr. H. T. Colebrooke has subjoined to this essay some farther explanatory remarks.

Extracts from the Tehzeebul Mantik, or "Essence of Logic," proposed as a small Supplement to Arabic and Persian Grammar; with

with a View to elucidate certain Points connected with Oriental Literature. *By* Francis Balfour, *Esq.*—These extracts are literary curiosities, and will be perused with interest by others than mere oriental scholars. The close coincidence here displayed, in every point, with the system referred to Aristotle, places it beyond a doubt, (says Mr. B.) that the system of logic generally ascribed to this wonderful genius, and which was translated into Arabic many centuries ago, constitutes the basis of the logic of the nations of Asia; though hitherto this fact has not been directly confirmed by translations from oriental languages. Mr. B. moreover endeavours to vindicate the Stagyrite against the charge of Lord Kaimes, and assigns to him that merit which has been attributed to the great Bacon:

> 'From some of the extracts contained in this paper, it will appear, 1st. That the mode of reasoning by *Induction*, illustrated and improved by the great Lord Verulam, in his *Organum Novum;* and generally considered as the cause of the rapid progress of science in later times, was perfectly known to Aristotle, and was distinctly delineated by him as a method of investigation that leads to certainty or truth; and 2dly, That Aristotle was likewise perfectly acquainted, not merely with the form of induction, but with the proper materials to be employed in carrying it on—Facts and Experiments.
>
> 'We are therefore led to infer, that all the blame of confining the human mind for so long a time in chains by the forms of syllogism, cannot be fairly imputed to Aristotle; nor all the merit of enlarging it and setting it free, ascribed to Lord Verulam. The vast extent of Aristotle's learning and knowledge, and the singular strength and penetration of his mind having, naturally, encouraged him to undertake a complete analysis of all its powers, the doctrine of syllogism became of course, a constituent and necessary part of his comprehensive system. And if succeeding philosophers, attracted by its ingenuity and beauty, have deserted the substance in pursuit of the shadow, the pernicious consequences of this delusion cannot, justly, be referred to him.'

In the preface to this Arabic treatise, we have a definition of its subject:

> 'In the language of logicians, examination or inspection is the contemplation of the thing known to obtain a knowledge of the thing unknown; that is to say, the contemplation of the known perceptible, and the known demonstrable, to obtain a knowledge of the unknown perceptible and unknown demonstrable; and as mistakes often happen in this investigation, there is indispensibly required some general rule to preserve the mind from falling into an error in the process of thinking. This rule is logic.
>
> 'From this discussion, therefore, it appears that the *Nature* of logic may be defined " A general rule which guards the mind against errors in thinking.'

The work is divided into two parts, the first treating of *Definition*, and the second of *Demonstration*. Part I. is subdivided into four sections: 1. of Expression; 2. of Ideas formed by the Intellect; 3. of the five Universal Ideas called Predicables; 4. of the different kinds of Definitions. Part II. is arranged in five sections: 1. of Propositions; 2. of Syllogism; 3. of Induction; 4. of Analogy; 5. of the division of Syllogisms according to their matter.

The section on Syllogisms being quoted by Mr. B. in the passage which we have just transcribed from his introduction, as a proof that Aristotle was acquainted with the method of pure investigation, we shall give it entire:

'A Syllogism is a sentence composed of propositions, and in such a manner, that there necessarily arises from this composition another sentence. Know then that having finished our investigation of propositions on the previous knowledge of which all reasoning or demonstration depends, I shall now consider demonstration:—Demonstration or reasoning is the process of inferring some thing from the state of one thing to prove the state of another; and this is of three kinds, viz. *Syllogism*, *Induction*, and *Analogy*. Syllogism is that in which an inference is drawn from a general rule or class to a subordinate part or individual belonging to that class; which must of course partake of its general nature, or character. This species of argument affords certainty or truth. Take for example "The world is changeable, and every thing liable to change was created;" thus they obtain the conclusion that the world did not exist from eternity, this is, was created. Be it then understood that two sentences combined, from the nature of which there necessarily arises a third, constitute what is called *Keeause* or syllogism: and the third sentence thus obtained is called *Neteejeb*, that is, the conclusion.

'The subject and predicate contained in the conclusion of the syllogism described is called the *Madleh*, that is, the *matter* of the conclusion; and the order in which they are placed constitutes what is called *Heiyet*, that is, the form or figure. If the matter and figure of the conclusion appear in the premises of the syllogism, then that syllogism is called conditional, because the conditional particle *Leiken* must be included in it. Take for example "whenever the sun shines day must exist;" but the sun shines, which gives the conclusion—"Then day exists," which is materially and formally contained in the preceding syllogism. But if the conclusion be not materially and formally expressed in the premises of the syllogism, then it is denominated *Ikterauni*, that is, simple or categorical; whether it be absolute or conditional.

'The *subject* considered in the conclusion of a simple syllogism is called *Asrur*, that is, the minor; and the thing predicated of the subject is called *Akbar*, that is, the major; and the proposition which contains the minor is called *Sururi*, minor proposition; and the proposition which contains the major, is called *Akburi* or major proposition; and the term with which the subject and predicate of the conclusion are both compared is called the middle term or *Huddi Osit*, or *Osit*, &c. &c. &c.'

If European logicians can learn nothing from these extracts, they will prove that the author of the work from which they are taken knew the method of reasoning. That this treatise of logic, however, is of no high antiquity, is evident from its adducing 'the missions of the prophet Mahommed and Jesus Christ,' as instances of traditions which cannot be supposed to be false.

An Essay on the Sacred Isles *in the West, with other Essays connected with that Work. By Captain* F. WILFORD.—Only a part of Captain Wilford's undertaking is presented to the public in this volume, and that part is very little satisfactory. When he informs us in his Introduction that his object is 'to prove that the Sacred Isles of the *Hindus*, if not the *British* Isles, are at least some remote country to the North-west of the old continent, for he cannot conceive that they are altogether Utopian or imaginary,'—we were prepared to expect an actual display of the antient geography of the Asiatics: but, instead of any real knowlege and science, we find an account of idle legends, the substance of which is not worth transcription, and imaginary charts which are illustrative only of the wild fancies of the *Hindus*. Captain Wilford comments with energy on the attempts which were made by his Pundit to impose on him the fictions of his own brain instead of real extracts from the *Purán'as*, and from other books relative to his inquiries; and though he tells us that these forgeries were detected, we cannot banish the suspicion that some of the learned among the *Hindus*, who have obtained by intercourse with us a little knowlege of our history and geography, have succeeded in persuading this Asiatic student that, from the most remote times, they were acquainted with the British Isles under the name of the *Sacred Isles*. As a portion only of the labours of Captain W. is before us, we cannot absolutely pronounce on this subject: but the contents of this paper will serve to stamp probability on our suspicion.

It is proposed by the author to publish six essays; of which the one now printed relates merely to the Geographical Systems of the Hindus, (if such extravagant fictions as those which are here enumerated be intitled to such an appellation,) and is subdivided into three sections: 1. General ideas of these Systems. 2. List of Mountains, Rivers, and Countries, from the *Purán'as* and other Books. 3. Geographical Extracts from the *Purán'as*.—Of the nature of these extracts, the account given by Captain W. of the books from which they are taken will sufficiently inform us;

'These works, whether historical or geographical, are most extravagant compositions, in which little regard indeed is paid to truth. King Vicrama'ditya had four lakhs of boats, carried on carts, for ferrying his numerous armies over lakes and rivers. In their treatises on geography, they seem to view the globe through a prism, as if adorned with the liveliest colours. Mountains are of solid gold, bright like ten thousand suns; and others are of precious gems. Some of silver, borrow the mild and dewy beams of the moon. There are rivers and seas of liquid amber, clarified butter, milk, curds, and intoxicating liquors. Geographical truth is sacrificed to a symmetrical arrangement of countries, mountains, lakes, and rivers, with which they are highly delighted. There are two geographical systems among the *Hindus*: the first and most ancient is according to the *Puràn'as*, in which the Earth is considered as a convex surface gradually sloping toward the borders, and surrounded by the ocean. The second and modern system is that adopted by astronomers, and certainly the worst of the two. The *Puràn'ics* considering the Earth as a flat surface, or nearly so, their knowledge does not extend much beyond the old continent, or the superior hemisphere: but astronomers, being acquainted with the globular shape of the Earth and of course with an inferior hemisphere, were under the necessity of borrowing largely from the superior part in order to fill up the inferior one. Thus their astronomical knowledge, instead of being of service to geography, has augmented the confusion, distorted and dislocated every part, every country in the old continent.'

The most remarkable feature in their geographical romances is

'Mount *Meru*, which is said to be of four different colours, towards the four cardinal points: but the *Puràn'ics* are by no means unanimous about them: and the seas, through the reflection of the *solar* beams from each side, are of the same colour. The East, like the *Brâhmens*, is of a white colour: the South, like the *Vaisyas*, is yellow; *Apara* the West, like the *Cshúdras*, is of a brown, or dark colour; and the North is red like the *Cshetris*. But in the *Haimavatchànda*, *Méru* is said to be supported, or propped, by four enormous buttresses: that toward the East, is of pure gold; toward the South, of iron; to the West, of silver; and the buttress to the North, of copper. Thus toward the East it is yellow, to the South red, white to the West, and of a dark brown to the North.'

The charts contain representations equally visionary; and in our judgment, from such matter, little in the shape of fact can be obtained. Captain W., we hope, will take care of *Hindu* counterfeits, "such being abroad," and will not be too credulous about the *Sacred Islands*.

Of the Védas, or Sacred Writings of the Hindus. By H. T. Colebrooke, *Esq.*—Having been so fortunate as to collect at *Benares* a large portion of the text and commentary of these celebrated books,* Mr. C. endeavours in this paper to afford a brief explanation and some specimens of their contents. To a concise history of the *Véda* is subjoined a distinct account of the matter of each of its four books or divisions, viz. the *Rigvéda*, the *Yajurvéda*, the *Sámavéda*, and the '*Atharvána*. While Mr. C. readily admits the probability of interpolated passages, and is fully aware of the fabricated works produced by the writers of the East, he is disposed to believe that the greatest part of the books, received by the learned among the *Hindus*, will be found to be genuine. For the citations made from these oriental scriptures we must refer to the paper before us, which will be amusing to a certain class of readers. It thus concludes:

'The preceding description may serve to convey some notion of the *Védas*. They are too voluminous for a complete translation of the whole: and what they contain, would hardly reward the labour of the reader; much less, that of the translator. The ancient dialect, in which they are composed, and especially that of the three first *Védas*, is extremely difficult and obscure: and, though curious, as the parent of a more polished and refined language (the classical *Sanscrit*), its difficulties must long continue to prevent such an examination of the whole *Védas* as would be requisite for extracting all that is remarkable and important in those voluminous works. But they well deserve to be occasionally consulted by the oriental scholar.'

A Botanical and Economical Account of the Bassia Butyracea or East India Butter Tree. By W. Roxburgh, *M.D.*—This plant belongs to the family of *Polyandria Monogynia*, and its generic character is minutely specified by Dr. R. to be 'Calyx beneath, four or five leaved. Corol, one petaled: border about eight cleft. Berry superior, with from one to five seeds.

'*Bassia Butyracea*. Roxburgh.

'Calyx five leaved; Stamens thirty or forty, crowning the subcylindric tube of the Corol, *Fulwah, Phulwarah*.' The *Shea* of *Mungo Park*, or the butter tree of Africa, is supposed to be a species of the same genus. Of the *Bassia Butyracea*, the following account is given by Mr. Gott:

'The tree producing a fat-like substance, known in this country by the name of *Phulwah* is a native of the *Almorah* hills, and known there by the same name. The tree is scarce, grows on a strong soil, on the declivities of the southern aspects of the hills below *Almorah*, generally attaining the height, when full grown, of fifty feet, with a circumference of six. The bark, of such specimens as I have been able to obtain, is inclined to smoothness, and speckled; it flowers in *January*, and the seed is perfect about *August*, at which time the natives collect them, for the purpose of extracting the above substance. On opening the shell of the seed, or nut, which is of a fine chesnut colour, smooth, and brittle; the kernel appears of the size and shape of a blanched almond: the kernels are bruised, on a smooth stone, to the consistency of cream, or of a fine pulpy matter; which is then put into a cloth bag, with a moderate weight laid on, and left to stand, till the oil, or *fat*, is expressed, which becomes immediately of the consistency of hog's lard, and is of a delicate white colour. Its uses are in medicine; being highly esteemed in rheumatism, and contractions of the limbs. It is also much esteemed, and used by natives of rank, as an unction, for which purpose, it is generally mixed with an *Utr* of some kind. Except the fruit, which is not much esteemed, no other part of the tree is used.

'This tree is supposed to bear a strong affinity to the *Mawa*, (*Madhuca*, or *Baſsia latifolia*;) but the oil or *fat*, extracted from the seeds, differs very materially. The oil from the *Mawa*, is of a greenish yellow colour, and seldom congeals. That from the *Phulwah* congeals immediately after expression, is perfectly colourless; and, in the hottest weather, if melted by art, will, on being left to cool, resume its former consistency. The oil from the seed of the *Mawa*, if rubbed on woollen cloth, leaves as strong a stain as other oils or animal fat. The fatty substance from the *Phulwah*, if pure, being rubbed on woollen cloth, will leave no trace behind.'

A plate exhibiting the growth and the fructification is affixed to this paper.

A Description of a Species of Ox, named Gáyal. Communicated by H. T. Colebrooke, *Esq.*—Though we recollect that the Gáyal has been often noticed, we believe that no detailed account of this animal and his habits has hitherto been published in India; and to remedy this deficiency is the object of the present communication, which contains several distinct descriptions. The *Bos Gaveus* or *Gáyal*, says Dr. Roxburgh, 'is nearly of the size and shape of the English bull. It has short horns, which are distant at their bases, and rise in a gentle curve directly out and up: a transverse section, near the base, is ovate; the thick end of the section being on the inside. The front is broad, and crowned with a tuft of lighter coloured, long, curved hair. The dewlap is deep and pendent. It has no mane, nor hump; but a considerable elevation over the withers. The tail is short: the body covered with a tolerable coat of straight, dark-brown, hair: on the belly it is lighter coloured; and the legs and face are sometimes white.'

Of his habits and utility, an idea may be formed from the subsequent extract:

'The *Gáyal* is of a dull heavy appearance; but, at the same time, of a form, which indicates much strength and activity, like that of the wild buffalo. His colour is invariably brown; but of different shades, from a light to a dark tinge; and he frequently has a white forehead, and four white legs, with the tip of the tail also white. He has a full eye, and, as he advances in age, often becomes blind; but it is uncertain whether from disease, or from a natural decay. His disposition is gentle; even when wild, in his native hills, he is not considered to be a dangerous animal, never standing the approach of man, much less bearing his attack. The *Cúcis* (a race of mountaineers) hunt the wild ones for the sake of their flesh.

'The *Gáyal* delights to range about in the thickest forest, where he browses, evening and morning, on the tender shoots and leaves of different shrubs; seldom feeding on grass, when he can get these. To avoid the noon-day heat, he retires to the deepest shade of the forest, preferring the dry acclivity of the hill, to repose on, rather than the low ſwampy ground below; and never, like the buffalo, wallowing in mud.

'*Gáyals* have been domesticated among the *Cúcis* from time immemorial; and without any variation, in their appearance, from the wild stock. No difference whatever is observed in the colour of the wild and tame breeds: brown of different shades being the general colour of both. The wild *Gáyal* is about the size of the wild buffalo in *India*. The tame *Gáyal* among the *Cúcis*, being bred in nearly the same habits of freedom, and on the same food, without ever undergoing any labour, grows to the same size with the wild one.

'He lives to the age of fifteen, or twenty years; and, when three years old, the *Gáyal* cow receives the bull; goes eleven months with young; and will not again admit his embrace, until the following season after she has brought forth.

'The *Gáyal* cow gives very little milk, and does not yield it long; but what she gives, is of a remarkably rich quality; almost equally so with the cream of other milk, and which it also resembles in colour. The *Cúcis* make no use whatever of the milk, but rear the *Gáyals* entirely for the sake of their flesh and skins. They make their shields of the hides of this animal The flesh of the *Gáyal* is in the highest estimation among the *Cúcis*; so much so, that no solemn festival is ever celebrated without slaughtering one or more *Gáyals*, according to the importance of the occasion.'

At the conclusion of this paper, the author corrects an error into which Mr. Kerr and Dr. Turton have fallen, in their translation of the *Systema Naturæ*; and he observes that the *Bos Arnee* of these gentlemen ought to be rejected from systems of Zoology as an erroneous description.

An Account of the Measurement of an Arc on the Meridian on the Coast of Coromandel, and the Length of a Degree deduced therefrom in the Latitude 12° 32′. *By Brigade Major* WILLIAM LAMBTON.—Though this operation, in point of extent and importance, cannot be compared with the grand measurements executed in England and France, yet it seems to have been conducted with great caution and nicety of skill, and by the aid of excellent English instruments. The meridional arc measured was between Paudree, Latitude 13° 19′ 49″,02, and Trivandepoorum, latitude 11° 44′ 52″,59: consequently, the difference of the latitude of these two places is 1° 34′ 56″,43. The number of fathoms in the terrestrial arc was 95721,3266; and hence 1°, 58233 : 1° :: 95721,3266 : 60494 fathoms for a mean latitude between 13° 19′ 49″,02 and 11° 44′ 52″,59, or for a latitude 12° 32′ nearly.

If we suppose the earth to be an ellipsoid, and the difference of the diameters to be $\frac{1}{300}$th. part of the whole diameter, a degree in latitude 12° = 56772 toises, and a degree in latitude 13° = 56776 :—consequently a degree in latitude 12° 30′ = 56774 toises. If this be reduced to fathoms, we shall have 60506,8905 for the length of one degree of the meridian; and the computed length on the hypotheses of the difference $\frac{1}{300}$ of the diameters differs from the length measured by Brigade-Major LAMBTON 12 fathoms in sixty thousand fathoms; which is no great disagreement.

Besides the measurement of a meridional arc, the author has measured the length of an arc perpendicular to the meridian in latitude 12° 32′; and he found the length of one degree to be 61052 fathoms nearly.

It is very essential,—and the operation requires great nicety and attention,—to determine the latitude of the extremities of the meridional arc. The method employed by the present writer is the same as that which former observers have adopted. The zenith distance of a star whose declination is known is observed, and thence, by addition or subtraction, we obtain the co latitude: the star chosen was Aldebaran, with a transit circular instrument: the zenith distance was taken on a certain night, and on the following night it was again taken with the instrument turned half round, or moved in Azimuth through 180°: the mean of the two was allowed for the zenith distance; and half their difference is the error of the line of collimation. This observation was often repeated; and we subjoin a short table in order to shew the near agreement of the whole:

' Observations at the Station near *Paudree*.

Day of the Month.	Mean of the Zenith Distance of each Arc.	Mean of the corrected Declinations.	Latitude.
	° ′ ″	° ′ ″	° ′ ″
Nov. 23d & 24th,	2 46 32, 5	16 06 20,70	13 19 48,20
24th & 25th,	2 46 32,46	16 06 20,69	13 19 48,23
25th & 26th,	2 46 31,78	16 06 20,68	13 19 48,90
30th & 1st *Dec.*	2 46 31,60	16 06 20,61	13 19 49,01
Dec. 1st & 2d,	2 46 32,60	16 06 20,60	13 19 4[illegible], 0
2d & 3d,	2 46 32,90	16 06 20,58	13 19 47,68
12th & 13th,	2 46 30,96	16 06 20,39	13 19 49 43
13th & 14th,	2 46 28,57	16 06 20,36	13 19 51,79
Error of collemt. applied } 27th,	2 46 29,71	16 06 19,64	13 19 49 93
		Mean	13 19 49 18

This memoir fills sixty quarto pages; and the account of measurements like the present, if it goes beyond mere arithmetical results, cannot be satisfactorily given within a short compass. The tables require some space: the narration of the circumstances under which the observations were made also occupies space; and it is necessary besides to specify peculiar artifices and precautions, in order that other observers may either profit from them, or, in case of any anomaly and disagreement of results, that materials may be ready for investigating the cause. We hope that the ingenious conductor of these operations will be induced to resume his labours, in the measurement of a meridional arc of a more considerable extent.

On the Hindu Systems of Astronomy, and their Connection with History in antient and modern Times. By J. BENTLEY, *Esq.*—This long paper, according to the author's own statement, prematurely appears in the world, in consequence of an attack made on his former essay on the same subject by an European periodical critic. The discussion itself is of a nature but little calculated to interest the general reader in this part of the world, and the arguments are not easy for him to comprehend: but, more especially, as it is in reply to observations with which it would be improper and contrary to our invariable practice for us to interfere, either *pro* or *con.*, we must refrain from any attempt to abstract the reasonings or to state the results.

When Mr. B. has terminated his controversial discussion, he passes on to the explanation of matters of considerable importance to those who are desirous of forming a true judgment respecting the real antiquity of Hindu history; and he states, at considerable length, the construction of some of the most antient Hindu chronological systems. As his remarks on this subject, however, cannot easily be compressed within a short compass, we must refer the curious or the interested reader to the memoir itself. The result of Mr. B.'s statements and inquiries is that small, if any, reliance can be placed on what is usually called the general opinion of the Hindus.

This volume closes with an Appendix containing—*Introductory Remarks, intended to have accompanied Captain Mahony's Paper on Ceylon, and the Doctrines of Buddha, published in the Seventh Volume of the Asiatic Researches; but inadvertently omitted in publishing that Volume. By* J. H. HARINGTON, *Esq.*—

These remarks are designed to support the relation of Captain Mahony, and the conjectures of Sir William Jones, concerning Buddha and his doctrines.

Art. VII. *Lettres inédites de* Mirabeau, &c.; *i. e.* Unpublished Letters of Mirabeau; Memorials, and Extracts from Memorials, written in 178 , 1782, and 1783, in the Course of his Suit at Pontarlier, to reverse a Sentence which had been passed on him, and of another at Provence, for a separation between him and his Wife; the Whole forming a Continuation of the Letters written from the Dungeon of Vincennes, from 1777 to 1780, inclusively. Published by *J. F Vitry*, formerly employed in the Office of Foreign Affairs. 8vo. pp. 490. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe.

The space in public opinion which once was filled by the person whose name this title page announces, his singular adventures, his extraordinary talents, and his astonishing political displays, strongly excite attention to all that his pen had at any time traced. The volume now offered to us is stated to form the completion of all that has been yet discovered of his works; and it refers to a period of his life which was the most agitated, and does not seem to have been the least interesting.

M. *Vitry* professes to have ransacked all the repositories of the law, and the offices of government, in order to arrive at the exquisite pieces of eloquence which he has now given to the public; and which, as he justly observes, in respect to address and energy, are worthy of the best days of antiquity. In these, the writer appears the same person who, in the Constituent Assembly, astonished Europe with his genius; and we are of opinion with the editor, that 'some of the legal addresses are in no respect inferior to the most splendid of his state harangues; that we meet in them with discussions which are as luminous as they are profound, and which have as much force as precision; that they are distinguished by the clearest reasoning; that they bespeak a courage which nothing is able to subdue or shake; and that they proceed from views not less solid than comprehensive.' It is to be observed, however, that the memorials have been printed before; though we are here assured that the public was never fairly in possession of them, because pains had been taken on their first issuing from the press to make them disappear; and the editor is of opinion that his copy is the sole one now remaining.

Besides the letters, the reader will here find the first of Mirabeau's memorials which he composed in the prison of Pontarlier.

tarlier. The whole of it is inserted, because, besides its point and neatness, it furnishes the most exact and detailed account of events preceding his arrest, and of his flight with Madame *Mounier* to Holland. The volume includes also interesting sketches from the second of these memoirs, and the whole of the third *diatribe* vented against the deputy of the king's advocate, and which the best judges, on its first appearance, named the *Philippic of Comte Mirabeau.* The orator himself most highly eſtimated this grand effort of his genius; exclaiming in reference to it, " if that does not display eloquence unparalleled in these barbarous ages, I know not what this fascinating and rare gift of heaven means." To these we are to add his correspondence after his departure from Pontarlier, and during his residence in Provence with the Marquis *de Marignane*, his father-in-law, and with his wife; and his argument before the tribunal of Aix. The editor highly commends this last performance, as a model of eloquence, yet replete with moderation; as displaying the utmost penetration and the most masterly reasoning. We have also remarkable fragments, selected from observations on his memorials contained in the scarce work before mentioned: extracts from his memorial before the Grand Council; and his opinion in 1784 on the indissolubility of marriage, and the distinction between it and separation, which concludes the book. We have omitted to specify what forms by no means the least interesting of the contents of these pages; namely, his conversation with the keeper of the seals, relative to the suppression of the last memorial by the order of that magistrate: a conversation which attained much celebrity at the moment, and which will remain a curious monument of the firmness with which MIRABEAU resisted, even at that period, the oppressions and vexations of ministerial authority.

As the editor remarks, the letters are the most remote from being laboured compositions; and in his eyes, this negligence has value and attraction, since they are full (he asserts) of characteristic traits. With the writer's countrymen, they may have an interest which is not felt by strangers: but we see among them many which, we think, might have been omitted, without greatly diminishing the interest of the volume: though it must be granted that scarcely one of them is devoid of some expressions that are strongly indicative of the vigour of mind which distinguished the writer.

We select the following letter, to shew that this most ambitious and (we suspect that we may add) unprincipled man was not destitute of amiable private feelings. It is an interesting domestic picture, which presents reflections that display a sympathising heart; and it is addressed to the editor of this volume, with whom he appears to have been on the most intimate terms:

> 'Again, my dear *Vitry*, I write to you only a few words, that you may not be uneasy about me. My poor niece is at death's door. A malignant fever has in five days reduced her to this extremity. I cannot comprehend how a young creature, whose rosy complexion announces blood so pure, who is besides gentle, abstemious, and a stranger to every passion, could have been liable to the attack of so virulent a malady. At this rate, we who are so prodigal of life ought to die every eight days. The poor mother is pregnant, and is overwhelmed with grief; indeed we all love this charming child; and you may guess our affliction. I obtain no sleep, my health requires tranquillity, but this event deprives me of all hope of it.
>
> 'Figure to yourself what will be the dismal nature of our situation, if we are deprived of her; in the country, face to face with grief, and cut off from every resource! I have often regarded death as one of the wisest provisions of nature: but it is thus to be viewed only when it strikes ourselves, and not our connections. Adieu, my friend, love me as I love you; and take especial care of your precious infant.'

The succeeding remarks of this acute observer, contained in a letter to the same friend, are perhaps generally well-founded, though they were not verified in the particular instance which the writer had in view:

> 'I will apprize you, my dear friend, and you alone, that it is possible that I may very shortly set out for Provence, in order to finish the great and important affair * which I have happily managed, and which will put me in possession of sixty thousand livres per annum. A great step has been taken, and women do not retreat, unless it be when they have to deal with fools. If these charming and timid creatures are slow in advancing, they never retrograde unless they suspect ingratitude. On the contrary, when they perceive in us a lively sense of their favourable regard, they are so affected by our power over them, so influenced by the emotions which they excite in us, that they are no longer able to do aught else than to add kindness to kindness.
>
> 'Adieu, my friend; for it will be said that it is to a fine woman that I am writing; I shall act against my principles if I waste in discussion the time which I ought to employ in exertion. Man is not born to pass his vigorous hours in talking, this is the right of old age. Be a Nestor when you can no longer be an Achilles, a Diomed, or an Ulysses; there will remain but too much time for acting the part of the king of Pylos.'

Writing also to the same friend, he draws a sketch of himself, and furnishes proofs of the ardent cast of his mind:

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* His reconciliation with Madame *de Mirabeau.*

'My sensibility makes me desirous of pleasing: but we can only please those whom we resemble, and hence it is that I do not please all. I endeavour to have only estimable friends, and I find it agreeable to assimilate myself to them in little matters, which do not relate to great duties and great plans. This has occasioned my facility to be calumniated; it is not so great as has been supposed: but, were it so, this quality is not without its use; for *Voltaire* has said, he who has not the spirit belonging to his time of life feels all its evils; and the same may be said of the spirit of situation: he who cannot seize it will suffer in every thing, and succeed in nothing. But why does one feel oneself a man, if it be not in order to succeed every where and in every thing, from the people up to kings, from frivolities up to the transcendant sciences, from petty domestic objects to the command of armies, and the administration of empires? We ought not to say of any thing, *that is below us*, nor feel *any thing as being above us*. Nothing is impossible to the man who is able to *will* with constancy and firmness. *Is it fitting? Then it shall be.* This is the only law.'

Referring to the accusation preferred against him before the tribunals, charging him with the abduction of Madame *de Mounier*, and of which he was finally acquitted; we meet with passages not unworthy of that eloquence which, at a later period, thundered so awfully from the tribune of the National Assembly:

'Such, then, is the suit which, for five years, has involved two families in affliction, who tremble to this day on account of my temerity! Such is the process which deprived me for five years of my civil existence: which has separated me from a loved, tender, and indulgent wife; which deprived me of the last embraces of my dying son, which prevented my pressing his agonizing lips, and who perhaps might still have lived, had I retained the care of him! Such is this suit, which occasions a young and unfortunate woman, distinguished by sensibility, beneficence, and the promise of every virtue, to waste her best days within the walls of prisons! Such is the suit which planted a dagger in the breast of her affectionate mother; which has armed three families against each other, and poisoned society with hatred and scandal! Such was the process which was decided in two hours, while two days were consumed in the deliberation on my provisional enlargement! Yes: it was pronounced in two hours, by four judges, (the others declining to give judgment) that the head of a man of quality should fall at the executioner's feet; and that a young woman, so interesting, so gentle, and so loved, that her fate would have excited compassion among tygers,—that this female, belonging to a respectable family, and adorned with the highest dignities of the magistracy, should be cut off from among the living! All this was decided in two hours!'

On another occasion, he describes himself as more playful than spiteful, as more spiteful than wicked, as an impatient, high-spirited, irascible animal, but tender, affectionate, and on the whole a very good man.

'Treated as I have been, suppose that I have committed a great fault, and where is the General, capable of the happiest combinations, who has not made some false movements? Frederic was chargeable with a score of them, Cesar with eight or ten, four of which he has confessed, and Turenne with two. When we have committed faults, only the greatest activity, mental and bodily, can repair them: I am not wanting in this quality, which has been given to men in order to repair their follies: but all have it not. Confide in me. I shall extricate myself from this difficulty.'

The strong pencil of MIRABEAU discovers itself in the following passages:

'What shall I gain by eternal hatred? All my opponents were more futile than corrupt, except the prevaricator, the deputy king's advocate *Sombarde*. On him alone I make war as a man and as a citizen. With regard to the others, I absolve them as far as it lies with me. God forbid that I should resemble those who, being slaves to their passions, raise outcries against the vices of others as if they were jealous of them; and who censure nothing so severely as acts which they themselves are constantly imitating. What is so honourable as an indulgent allowance, on the part of those who stand in no need of it from others? Alas; I am far from being of the latter number. The extravagances and vices of my youth have cost me much; and they have cost much to others. For this mischief I cannot, as in the case of those which are personal to me, forgive myself. In fine, inexorable to myself, indulgent to others, as to those who can only be indulgent to themselves, I shall never forget the fine sentiment of an antient who was regarded as the living image of virtue: *He who hates vices, hates men.* Alas! what do we gain by hating men! In order to live among them, must we not practise forbearance? Have they not, after all, more of good than of bad? Let us not exaggerate; if we paint the dangers which surround us, let us not conceal our multiplied pleasures. We talk of our misfortunes, and forget our felicities. We behold, it is said, more of vice and suffering than of virtue and enjoyment; but this is not true, for the world endures, and societies subsist: if there were more of evil than of good, we should be all annihilated.

'The partialities of tribunals, their refusal to render justice, their studied delays, are an evil; the errors of judges, and the imperfections of jurisprudence, are an evil, and a very serious one. Our laws, so multiplied, so various, so confused, so contradictory, so little understood by the body of the people: the Roman law, which governs us in part; our customary law, in some respects so fine, in others so absurd, and frequently so favourable to oppression; and above all our criminal laws so formidable to liberty, and so much more important than the civil laws as the reputation and lives of citizens are more important than their property; these laws, so far from being perfect, do not even approach perfection. Crimes are not exactly defined in them;

the penalties are out of proportion, barbarous, arbitrary, and uncertain: denunciations and accusations often remain secret, to the prejudice of upright conduct, and the extreme danger of truth and innocence, which are thus deprived of defence: the proofs on which sentence is given often lie buried in an office, in which a careless or an artful clerk will make a witness swear to that which never entered his thoughts, or in which he who deposes can advance what he would never dare to affirm if the mode of proceeding were more solemn. Many of our law-proceedings, which seem framed rather to involve in guilt than to discover truth, abound with regulations which are repugnant to reason, and humanity.

'Men are imperfect; and hence their decrees may be unjust: but, as men only deal with men, they are obliged mutually to make allowance for their several imperfections. All that can be done to remedy these is to adopt the wisest precautions, such as a knowlege of the human heart and the suggestions of experience recommend, in order to guard against the passions, prejudices, and partialities of judges. It is for this purpose that legal forms have been invented; the object of them is to give to innocence the safe-guard of time, which dissipates prejudices, cools the passions, exposes partiality, and brings the truth more or less to light. These forms are the best basis of our security; and nothing can be more idle than declamation against them. The province of maintaining each individual in or restoring him to the enjoyment of his civil rights, without encroaching on those of others, requires reasonable and profound discussions; and the more on account of the imperfection and complex nature of the laws themselves.'

The confessions of MIRABEAU in these letters prove that irregularities of life generally carry with them their own punishment. In one of them he says:

'I see that all that is most dear to me condemns me. I am convinced that the course which I take is the best, but I am terrified by this opposition between inward conviction and the opinion of my friends; I adhere, however, to my plan, but I experience all the heart-rendings and agitations of mind that are imaginable Alas! it is too true, my friend, that if talents could render a man wise, I should not have committed so many follies. They *are* committed. It now only remains to expiate them, and to consign them to oblivion by a life which for the future shall be honourable. I shall labour indefatigably for that purpose: but I assure you that I have never so sincerely deplored these faults, as since I have seen how easily they are committed and with what difficulty they are repaired.'

While soliciting a reconciliation with his wife, he writes thus to her:

'I should little feel your value, if I could forget that you are united to me by indissoluble ties; and I know not what secret sentiment it is that tells me, that you are not displeased at my not forgetting it. I avow, then, and I glory in it, that you are in my eyes the most precious property, and the only one which can in future embellish my life, distracted as it has been by errors and reverses. Let it excite no astonishment that I narrowly watch over that which is most dear to me, over the only source of consolation which fate and my offences have left me. Allow me no longer to remain in doubt in regard to your health. My father and uncle are equally desirous with myself to be informed of it. When I witness their sensibility in regard to you, and to all that respects you, and when I call to mind your love for your duty and your desire to please, I am unable to explain why all their letters remain unanswered, and I am lost in sorrow. Live happy, and believe that your happiness is the object of my most ardent wishes. since I can only be happy through you, and by seeing you happy.'

The moral deformities of this extraordinary man were equalled only by his vast talents. All this caressing, when contrasted with his past behaviour, is in the highest degree mean: but what must be our detestation of his conduct, when we perceive that all these professions are hypocritical, and are made solely in order to get into his hands the fortune of his injured and insulted wife? Various other passages, of the same kind with that which is first inserted, might be selected, did not the knavery which we feel to have been the basis of all these attempts disgust us more than the ability and address displayed in them can delight. One or two more specimens, however, we shall submit to the reader:

'During eight years have we lived separate. This period has given experience to my youth. I can with difficulty believe that eight years of misfortune, itself a sacred title with tender hearts, have lost me your affection. Consult it, take the advice of your best friends, those of your family, those who are attached to yourself, those who have no interest to separate and embroil us, and to set us one against the other. But it is by descending within yourself, by listening to the voice of conscience, of justice, and of the generosity of your nature, that you will see all the enormity of the attempt to sever yourself from your husband;—the man of your choice, with whom you lived two years, to whom you have written letters worthy of yourself, and who has not seen you since he received those testimonies of your tenderness;—the father of your child, of that child over whom for eighteen months you shed tears. And why should you think of such a proceeding? Is it because I have debts, of which there would be none were it not that the arrangement of them is subject to forms requiring delay? Is it because your husband has been unfortunate, and most calumniated; or because it has pleased some to regard an accusation, against which a tribunal has decided, as a personal insult to you? Ah! I know you well; your heart scorns the barbarous sophistry, and disavows your pen. You know that the husband whom you chose is not without generosity, elevation, and sensibility. You have yourself said a thousand times that his natural impetuosity, cooled by age, would be succeeded by estimable qualities, which it had kept out of sight. You spoke with more eloquence in this way than it becomes me here to repeat. But I ought not to forget your words on those occasions, the precious pledges of your affection and of your esteem. Deign to reflect that, if the menace which they have advised you to hold out * can obtain nothing from me, your tenderness, your remonstrances, and your gentleness were rarely refused any thing by me, and never will be in future.'

The audacity and shallow sophistry of this plausible and artful epistle need not be pointed out to those who are acquainted with the history of the profligate Comte.

In arguing the question of separation, he displays those great abilities, that deep insight into the nature of man and the structure of society, and those enlarged views on the subject of government, which astonished Europe in the speeches that were uttered in the Hall of the National Assembly. In many parts of this volume, the talents of MIRABEAU are manifested in all their vast extent; and numerous apostrophes occur that do not yield to any of those which, at a subsequent period, raised him so high in the annals of fame as a ready and powerful orator. It has been said of him "that he ought never to have lived at all, or to have lived longer." Having consummated the overthrow of a government, he died before he had completed the more difficult task of establishing another; to which task, most arduous as it was, many have thought that his courage, his firmness, and his capacity, would have proved equal. If such were the case, never did a man live whose premature death the world had so much cause to lament.

ART VIII. *Authentische Darstellung des Verhältnisses zwischen England und Spanien,* &c.; *i. e.* An Authentic Statement of the Relations between England and Spain, before and at the Rupture between those two Powers. By FREDERIC DE GENTZ. 8vo. pp. 552. St. Petersburg. 1806.

WHEN in times of supineness or delusion, a man of talents perseveringly opposes the torrent which, unresisted, seems to carry with it all around him, or dares to arouse his contemporaries from their lethargy or despondency to a sense of their real interest and duty, he has a full claim to our distinction, whatever may be the success of his exertions. On this principle, independently of the natural partiality which we must feel for any one who warmly espouses the cause of our own country, it is impossible for us to withhold our esteem from Baron

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* A sentence of separation, which Madame *de Mirabeau* afterward succeeded in obtaining.

Gentz, whose former labours are already known to our readers; and who, during a most important period, while the cabinets and the people of the continent were either seized by apathy, or deceived by hired partizans, has been constantly endeavouring to disperse the mist of delusion, and to kindle the latent spark of patriotism in the breasts of his countrymen. In most of his literary productions, the Baron has shewn himself peculiarly desirous of removing those prejudices against Great Britain, which, by a concurrence of a variety of circumstances, and through the artful industry of the French government, have spread with increasing rapidity through all those states which are more or less under the influence of France. Besides the laudable wish to vindicate truth and justice against falsehood and oppression, he probably supposed that nothing would more effectually check the influence of France, than the support of that of Great Britain; and that by standing forwards as the champion of the latter, he could, in the most powerful manner, become the benefactor of his countrymen. If we be correct in this conjecture, however, we must entertain great doubts of the prudence of such a proceeding, in the present state of opinion and feeling on the continent. We are convinced by attentive observation that, though the tyranny and ambition of France are secretly abhorred, yet the repeated coalitions fostered (if not entirely created) by British subsidies, and the frequently oppressive dependence on England in a commercial view, have produced a deeply rooted dislike of British politics; and that consequently it is not adviseable to remind the people that they must take part with Great Britain, in order to liberate themselves from the dominion of her rival. No writer, we are persuaded, will be able to make much impression on the public mind in Germany, who betrays any design of supporting one of the contending parties in order to arraign the other. We therefore perceive with regret, on account of our good wishes for the success of Baron G.'s exertions, that he has not kept clear of all suspicion that it is his decided intention to plead the cause of our Government in every respect; and that he has sometimes indulged in a degree of warmth of expression, which the soundness of his arguments does not require, and which, we fear, will be very far from promoting his laudable intentions.

Indeed, when a long succession of unfortunate events and ill-judged measures has yearly rendered more improbable the completion of the author's ardent and patriotic wish, and has nearly ruined a cause which he had zealously espoused, it is scarcely surprising that his mind should become gradually less moderate, and should betray that bitterness which is the usual effect of repeated disappointments. Yet, in the present state of things in Germany, when 'the minds of men have been blunted by the daily renewed spectacle of triumphant crimes, wearied by calamities, and dejected by fears of the future,' he who would, with any hope of success, resist the formidable enemy, but cannot oppose in every respect the same powerful means which the other employs, must avoid even the appearance of an attempt to cope with him in the use of weapons to which the hand of political power can give much additional strength. If a conqueror, at the head of an army, descends to calumny and virulence in manifestoes and newspapers, the private individual, who attempts to defeat his purposes by exposing the falsehood of his assertions, ought to trust entirely to the sure effect of plain truth and moderation. We are, however, very far from insinuating that Baron G., in the work now under review, has substituted invectives for argument, or adopted the tone of a writer in the *Moniteur*; it is only occasionally that his expressions have a more personal application than, we think, is conducive to the effect which he wishes to produce.

In giving this *Authentic Statement of the Relations between Great Britain and Spain*, to the public, its author had principally two objects in view; 1st, to vindicate England against the allegations of bad faith and selfishness, which at the commencement of the war with Spain were made against her: and 2dly, to expose, in one very remarkable instance, the falsehood and vile intentions of the political articles in the French official journal. To make a fair representation of the facts that led to a rupture with Spain was highly meritorious on the continent; where, perhaps, never before prevailed so general and at first view so well founded an indignation at the conduct of the British ministry; which seized even the warmest friends of England, and which, when carefully nourished by the arts of French representation, made the treacheries of France appear the less dark by the side of the apparent faithlessness of her opponent. It is to be regretted that this statement of the real nature of the case appeared so late as the year 1806: but this delay has arisen from the difficulty of finding a publisher in Germany; for it was written in the beginning of the year 1805, but no German censor ventured to let it pass through the press, and its author disdained the idea of suffering it to steal into the world in the dark, like an anonymous libel.—The second object of this publication appears likewise highly important, when it is considered that almost all the political periodical publications of the continent have been, for a long time, under the controul of France, and copy the articles of the *Moniteur*, without venturing to add a single remark that might lead to a fair appreciation of their merits. So important in M. GENTZ's estimation is that sort of newspaper warfare which the French government has now for years been carrying on, and in which a sovereign is himself an avowed writer of political articles, that he devotes fifty pages of his introduction to a digression on that subject; and they form not the least interesting or least useful part of the volume. He gives an historical account of the origin of this new practice; shews how the French revolution destroyed that desirable external complaisance which, till then, governments had almost always preserved towards each other; and marks the period at which the head of the French nation began, after having laid heavy fetters on the press in general, personally to make use, in the midst of peace, of weapons which formerly were regarded only as the resort of the weak against a powerful oppressor. These considerations lead to a vindication of the British government against the reproach of similar practices in ministerial papers; and the author endeavours to convince his countrymen that the articles in these papers are by no means to be compared to the official communications of the *Moniteur*, but must be viewed as merely private reports or opinions. After having commented on the matter and form of the French official journal, he adds:

> 'If this unnatural state of things, this dangerous mixture of power, this extreme abuse of literary licentiousness, engrafted on military force,—a sovereign entering the lists with the writers of newspapers,—a writer of a newspaper, before whom kings tremble; - if this perverted and perverting system cannot be entirely annihilated, Europe cannot hope for peace. At present, when all is shaken and torn, when insecurity and confusion universally prevail, anxiety respecting the future is so great, that the heaviest and most pressing evil conceals from our view that which seems to be subordinate. But if a more fortunate constellation should arise, or the antient spirit and strength of so many nations, now humbled and degraded, shall once more be roused, and a way out of this labyrinth be discovered;—should the dignity of states be re-established, and the balance of power restored;—then let those, whom Providence may select to produce such a glorious regeneration, not forget that their work will remain incomplete, while a sovereign in Europe can with impunity be a writer of libels.'

The Statement of the Relations between Great Britain and Spain is an examination of, and reasoning on, the correspondence which was laid before parliament; and a translation of which, chronologically arranged, forms almost the second half of the volume. It is endeavoured to shew that, in every stage of the long and frequently intricate negociations which preceded the rupture, the British government acted not only with justice, but with great forbearance and moderation. Not in a single point does Baron G. admit that either of the administrations, which acted a part in those negotiations, gave reason for reproach; and he regrets that, even in the British senate, a doubt should have been expressed respecting the propriety of their conduct. The charge of temporizing he repels in their name by referring to the impossibility that any person, except the ministers themselves, could judge fairly on the propriety of submitting for a time to what would be a just ground of war; a principle which, if extended to its full length, would be little relished in this country. The seizure of the register ships, which was the principal cause of the cry against England, is defended with great skill; and we shall rejoice if all the readers of this publication should be as strongly convinced by the author's arguments, as he himself was, that not one of the many reproaches on that subject is found to be consistent when examined before an impartial tribunal.

To those who plead for Spain on the ground of compassion for her dependent situation, this able writer replies by the following general reasoning:

> 'It is clear that it would be strange political philosophy to suffer Great Britain to be ruined because Spain is fallen. But the mistaken humanity of those who diffuse such a maxim deserves, wherever it is found, much severer criticism. In the misfortune of a state, those evils only can justly attract pity which unavoidably befall it; and those which arise from weakness of conduct must excite very different feelings. Contempt is not sufficient. It may indeed be adequate to imbecility in private life: but when the imbecile man has the temerity to appear on that important scene on which every step affects the whole, and every step is decisive of the fate of nations, even to distant generations, he becomes as amenable to our hostility as the villain; and if, conscious of his weakness, he conducts the state to its ruin, he becomes the most execrable of human beings. That a state, in the situation of Spain, should immediately enter into a war against superior power, like that which the enervated policy of courts and the contemptible supineness of the age had thrown into the hands of France, nobody can expect: but when we see the sovereign of an antient and venerable monarchy, the head of a high minded people, the possessor of half a quarter of the globe and of all the treasures which it contains, draw his own shackles closer, and offer his hand to his oppressor,—when none of his motions remain free,—when the nod of a French agent is his supreme law,—when before the omnipotence of the foreign lawgiver the last attributes of an independent government vanish,—shall we still speak of due regard? shall his ministers still be treated with tenderness? and was it fair that England should forego even the smallest advantage, because men like these did not possess the courage to set bounds to the ruin of their country?'

M. DE GENTZ is of opinion that a formal declaration of war, under the persent circumstances and relations of the nations of Europe, is an optional ceremony. not at all times either practicable or necessary; so that it should now be proved, not why such a declaration might have been omitted, but why, from the peculiar nature of the case, it ought to have been made. The charge brought both in this country and abroad, against the British ministers, that they had mixed hostilities with peaceable negotiations, is turned into a subject of approbation, and gives rise to these remarks:

' It is an undoubted truth, the result of history, that the boundary which divides peace and war is the most abrupt among nations which are in the lowest state of civilization, and becomes smoother as they rise in refinement and as the science of politics advances more towards perfection. Among the nations of antiquity, peace and war were separated as it were by a brazen wall; and no idea could have been formed in Greece or Rome of a congress for peace, commenced under the din of arms, and continued for years within the view of bloody combats. The dawn of a more liberal intercourse between all the nations of Europe, in the middle ages, notwithstanding innumerable occasions for war, had already created a lenient and conciliating principle and a more gentle transition from hostilities to reconciliation; for in the midst of contest, common maxims and manners, the prescriptions of a common religion, and the spirit of a common chivalry, invited the princes and heroes of those times to an amicable approximation, and established a mutual understanding calculated to shorten hostile feelings, and to facilitate the return of peace. But to preserve, during the whole duration of hostilities, the prospect of accommodation, to place diplomatic negotiations constantly by the side of military operations, to arrange even these with an uninterrupted provident view to the interest of the state after the restoration of tranquillity, in short, to melt peace and war together as far as this is possible, was left to the great perfection which the art of policy has acquired in modern times. By this ingenious union and interweaving of things apparently incompatible, war has, in a much higher degree than formerly, been subject to a regular calculation, less blind, less violent, and less hopeless; and whatever apprehension of injurious effects, in some points of view, this important invention may excite, yet on the whole it was undoubtedly one of the most extensive and powerful steps in the progress of general civilization. After it had been proved by experience that a negotiation for peace might begin in the midst of a war, without a previous suspension of hostilities, it could not escape the attention of the rulers of nations, that negotiations arranged before the commencement of a war might also be continued notwithstanding hostile operations. The idea of beginning hostilities without breaking off mutual intercourse and communication, to commence a partial war only, and to use a first success merely to support pacification, this idea has not in the present case been applied for the first time;

and if it had originated with the British ministers, they would have no reason to be ashamed of their invention.'

The readiness with which the calumnies of the *Moniteur* were received and credited almost throughout Europe, and the eagerness with which political writers on the continent joined in painting English policy in the darkest colours, appear to this author to betray the spirit of the period; and to confirm the malancholy truth, ' that in times like the present, when a colossal tyranny, embracing and penetrating every thing, crushes individuals as well as nations, fetters thoughts as well as motions, and is intent on destroying for ever all that is fair and just in opinion and sentiment, as it has destroyed it in resolution and in action,—that in such times of despair nothing can be gained by moderation and forbearance.'

We have thus furnished our readers with a view of the object and reasonings of M. GENTZ. Much scope might be taken in commenting on them, and the *pour* and the *contre* would often be urged by contending politicians. Our multifarious duty, however, calls us to other objects; and we must conclude the article by observing that in this work we every where perceive the man, who, far above common writers on politics, takes a comprehensive view of his subject, with which he is intimately acquainted; that he reasons on general and liberal principles; that he has acquired great diplomatic ingenuity; that he states his argument in a plain, simple, and, in general, a fair manner; and that, if his style cannot always bear the test of strict examination, it is free from the common though opposite faults of compositions of this nature, heaviness on the one hand, or affectation of elegance on the other.

ART. IX. *Æschyli Dramata quæ supersunt, et deperditorum Fragmenta. Grecè et Latinè recensuit, et brevi annotatione illustravit,* FRIDERICUS HENRICUS BOTHE, *Magdeburgensis.* 8vo. *Lipsiæ.* 1805.

THIS work comprises, in the following order, the Greek life of Æschylus, and the δραμάτων κατάλογος; the tragedies, with a Latin translation at the bottom of the page; the fragments, also translated; short notes to the plays and fragments; a *conspectus metricus, i. e.* the metrical name of each verse; and a short *Index Rerum.* The whole is contained in one moderate octavo, the typography of which is executed with decent correctness, and some neatness, if allowance be made for a few fopperies, such as are common in German printing:—the fine paper copies are even handsome.

M. Bothe's professed design is to exhibit a correct text, with short explanations of the most difficult passages; and the book is intended for the use of students, and of such polite scholars as are apt to shrink from the perusal of bulky volumes. In the explanatory part, *Schutz* is followed: but in the restitution of the text, and the arrangement of the metres, much remained to be done, even after the labours of that editor and of M. *Herman.* '*Tentavi igitur,*' says M. Bothe, '*audacius fortasse quam felicius, tentavi certe, verborum auctoritatem ubique explorando, interpretamenta, quæ magis propria nostra est provincia, expungendo, denique metra, præsertim chorica, exigendo ad sensum pulcri historicamque veritatem. Quæ utcunque mihi cesserit opera (multum autem de esse ad perfectionem, ipse sentio); viam certe muniisse dicar, qua nisi alii meliores perrexerint, nihil in hoc genere præstari poterit lævigatum et quasi omnibus numeris absolutum. Scribebam Berolini, mense Maio* cIↄIↄcccv.' The substance of the whole preface is here given. Not a word is said of the *subsidia* which are used; *Schutz*'s first edition is M. Bothe's repository of facts; Stanley's notes, *Schutz*'s second edition, and the Glasgow folio, are occasionally quoted; the last probably at second-hand from *Schutz.*

That great innovations would be made in the text was to be expected from the above quotation: but that such innovations, as M. Bothe has introduced, could be ventured by any editor, would before the perusal of this book have been pronounced impossible. Few passages escape without a conjecture: every conjecture is admitted into the text; and the boldness of the alterations is quite as remarkable as their number. This unbounded licence renders it difficult for the mature scholar, and impossible for the student, to read the book with any degree of security; and had the text been undeserving of much reprehension, the defects of the notes would alone have disqualified the work from being, what it professes to be, a manual for the general reader. The readings which are adopted from others are seldom recorded; and even the editor, conjectures are sometimes unnoticed, in direct violation of the obvious duty of every one who revises an antient author. Another fault of the notes is their extreme jejuneness. Sometimes a quotation does not appear for pages together, and the absence of all learned illustration is poorly compensated by a few *formulæ, vulgo, inepte, inconcinne, corrupte, male,* in which M. Bothe commonly passes sentence on the readings that have the misfortune of displeasing him.—His chief attention has been given to the expulsion of glosses, and the restitution of the metre; and to the accomplishment of this design he cheerfully sacrifices whole verses in some abundance, besides clauses and half lines innumerable. He is persuaded that *lacunæ* in antient authors are for the most part imaginary; and accordingly, if a *strophe* or *antistrophe* be a little longer than its fellow, the excess is sure of being amputated without mercy. A doctrine so curious in itself, and so curiously carried into practice, deserves to be given in the author's own words.

Prometheus, V. 885.* Ἦ σοφὸς, ἦ σοφὸς ἦν,
ὃς πρῶτος ἐν γνώμᾳ
τόδ' ἐϐάστασε καὶ γλώσσᾳ διεμυθολόγησεν,
ὡς τὸ κηδεῦσαι καθ' ἑαυτὸν ἀριστεύει μακρῷ.

The beginning of the *antistrophe* is this:

Μήποτε, μήποτέ μ' ὦ
Μοῖραι * * *
λεχέων Διὸς εὐνάτειραν ἴδοισθε πέλουσαν,
μηδὲ πλαθείην γαμέτᾳ τινὶ τῶν ἐξ οὐρανοῦ.

In the new edition, we read,

Ἦ σοφὸς ὃς πρῶτος τόδ' ἐϐάστασε
καὶ γλώσσα ———
Μήποτέ μ' ὦ Μοῖραι λεχέων Διὸς
εὐνάτειραν ———

V. 875 (885) V. [this V. means *vulgo*, i. e. *Schutz*'s 1st ed.]
Ἦ σοφὸς, ἦ σοφὸς ἦν
ὃς πρῶτος ἐν γνώμᾳ· τόδ' ἐϐάστασε, etc.

‘*quibuscum comparata antistrophica Heathio aliisque videbantur lacunosa: quod non est: nam et verba* ἦ σοφὸς *et in antistropha* μήποτε *inutiliter repetuntur, et* ἦν *eleganter aberit;* ϐαστάζειν *autem per se quoque ponderare quid animo significat, ut* ἐν γνώμᾳ *pro glossemate recte habeatur.*

‘Tenendum vero omnino illud est poëtarum, præsertim Tragicorum, interpreti, sententiis quidem locorum integris, ubi metra laborare videantur, non tam cogitandum esse de defectibus quam de interpolationibus, quibus scatent utriusque linguæ carmina et scripta, sed magis Græcæ.’

This canon is promulgated on a very unfortunate occasion: for the structure of the sentence requires that ἐν γνώμᾳ should be retained to balance γλώσσᾳ; and it happens that Aristophanes has alluded to the verse, so as to demolish the new reading: Vesp. 724.

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* Our references, throughout this article, are made to the Greek and Latin edition in two volumes small octavo, published in the last year, but printed at Glasgow in 1794, under the direction of Mr. Porson.—The Glasgow *folio*, 1795, is nothing but a surreptitious and imperfect copy of the text of this edition. See M. R. Feb. 1796. It is deeply to be regretted that the notes have not appeared: for we have no hesitation in avowing our decided opinion that the corrections already published, admirable and unrivalled as they are, exhibit only an imperfect specimen of Mr. Porson's atchievements in restoring the text of Æschylus.

Ἦ που ΣΟΦΌΣ ἮΝ ὍΣτις ἔφασκεν, Πρὶν ἂν ἀμφοῖν μῦθον ἀκούσῃς,
οὐκ ἂν δικάσαις.

It is not possible to follow M. Bothe in many of his rambles; and it would be unpardonable to dwell too minutely on a work, the merits of which it is easy to enable our learned readers to appreciate by a few samples.

Prom. V. 93. δέρχθηθ' οἵαις αἰκίαισιν
διακναιόμενος τὸν μυριετῆ
χρόνον ἀθλεύσω. τοιόνδ' ὁ νέος
ταγὸς μακάρων ἐξεῦρ' ἐπ' ἐμοὶ
δεσμὸν ἀεικῆ.
Φεῦ φεῦ τὸ παρὸν κ. τ. λ.

'B. οἴκτισιν ἐν αἰκίαις.
93. V. Δ. οἵαις αἰκίαισι. *Porsonus:* αἰκίαισιν *ut aliquo saltem modo servaretur metrum. Sed talem versum* (anapæsticum an spondaicum nescias) *tam elumbem, omnique gratia, imo* cæsura carentem, *num tulissent aures Græcæ? Ita v.* 168. κρατεραῖς ἐν γυιοπέδαις αἰκιζομένου.'

Anapæsticum an spondaicum nescias. If so, the company, in which the verse is found, determines its metre. If it *may be* an anapæstic, and it be found among anapæstics, it *is* an anapæstic.—*Num tulissent aures Græcæ?* Let Dionysius of Halicarnassus * answer the question. *Σπονδεῖος ἀξίωμα ἔχει καὶ σεμνότητα πολλήν· παράδειγμα δὲ αὐτοῦ τόδε, Ποίαν δῆθ' ὁρμάσω, ταύταν ἢ κείναν;* words clearly taken from tragic anapæstics.

In the present instance, spondees are peculiarly well introduced, since the slowness of the measure exactly suits the solemnity of the speech.

Cæsura carentem.—This observation is a greater curiosity than the last. An anapæstic verse is censured, because it has no *cæsura.* Now the *Prometheus,* if our computation be right, contains one hundred and twenty-two dimeters and monometers; of which one hundred and one are as much without *cæsura* as the verse in question: so that if M. Bothe be consistent with himself, he must alter these hundred and one, or five verses out of every six. To make the case still stronger, of the hundred and twenty-two lines, not one has a *cæsura* at the end of a dipodia, such as

δέρχθηθ' οἴκτισ | ιν ἐν αἰκίαις.

This does indeed sometimes occur; *Agam.* 1343.

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* *De Struct. Orat. T. II, p.* 29 *ed. Hudson, ex. emend. R. Porsoni ad Eurip. Hec.* 165.

τίς ἂν εὔξαιτο ϐροτῶν ἀσινεῖ
δαίμονι φῦναι, τάδ' ἀκούων;

M. **Bothe** publishes,

——— τίς ἂν εὔξαιτο
ϐροτὸς ὢν, ἀσινεῖ—— *violata synaphea.*

Some such supplement as τίς ποτ' ἂν—— or Φεῦ, τίς ἂν—is clearly required:—but, though such *cæsuræ* are sometimes found, they should never be introduced *ex emendatione*, except from unavoidable necessity;—for all *cæsuræ*, as every one but M. **Bothe** knows, are defects in anapæstics.

These observations are applicable to V. 122, τὴν Διὸς αὐλὴν εἰσοιχνεῦσιν, which the editor pronounces to be *nullis numeris, ambiguoque metro*, and alters to—αὔλειον ἐσοιχνεῦσιν

V. 94—7. διακναιόμενος is made to constitute a monometer, and the rest of the sentence to form three dimeters. On this exploit M. **Bothe** thus exults:

'97. *Verba* δεσμὸν ἀικῆ *vulgo singulum versum constituunt, anapesticum monometrum, reliquis hujusmodi versiculis, qui hic leguntur, in dimetrorum formam redactis; in quo peccasse librarios, nativus cogitationum cum metris consensus, a nobis jam restitutus, docet. Præstat igitur reponere, secundum codicem Arundel.* φεῦ, φεῦ τὸ παρὸν *pro vulgato* αἶ αἶ τὸ π., ne versus hiet.'

The whole system being composed by the poet as one verse, the division of it into dimeters, monometers, and paræmiacs, is purely arbitrary, and a matter of mere convenience. We shall therefore not object to the new arrangement; and φεῦ φεῦ, also, is certainly right:—but it is curious to observe how impossible it is for M. **Bothe**, even when he happens to be correct in the main, to avoid some accidental error. '*Præstat* igitur *reponere* φεῦ φεῦ, ne versus hiet;' as if a *hiatus* were more allowable at the end of a monometer than of a dimeter. If the whole system be one verse, of what consequence can it be, as to any metrical question, into how many lines an editor is pleased to divide it?—Φεῦ, φεῦ, moreover, had been already restored by Mr. Porson.

V. 153. τοῦ νεκροδέγμονος εἰς ἀπέραντον—
156. μήτε τις ἄλλος τοῖς δ' ἐπεγήθει.

'155. 158. (153. 156.) *His et similibus tum Æschyli tum aliorum versibus quam plurimis intelligitur, dactylicos versus rite immisceri anapæsticis, quis enim tales, quales hi sunt, pro anapæsticis venditet?*'

Another new canon;—*No verse can be anapæstic which is composed of dactyls, or of dactyls and spondees.*—1. Since dactyls and spondees are introduced into anapæstics, in any number, and in any order, must it not sometimes happen, from the very nature of the metre, that these feet will exclusively occupy a whole verse? 2. The anapæstic system, from its continuous nature, can no more permit a dactylic verse to be thrust into it, than any verse (suppose an iambic trimeter) can be cleft asunder by the intrusion of a verse of some other metre into the middle of it. 3. If the last objection did not apply, the intermixture of dactylics and anapæstics would make an intolerable confusion in the *rythmus* and the music. 4. The position of the * *ictus* or *accentus metricus* clearly distinguishes these anapæstics from dactylics. Thus the verses ought to be read †:

> *του νέκροδεγμένος εἰς ἀπεραντόν—*
> *μητέ τις ἀλλός τοιώδ' ἐπεγηθεί.*

Had they been dactylics, thus:

> *τοῦ νεκροδέγμονος εἰς ἀπεράντον—*
> *μήτε τις ἄλλος τοίσδ' ἐπεγήθει.*

This consideration also takes away the ambiguity in V.V. 93, 122.

5. The sole reason on which the new *canon* is founded is, that the verses have the same feet as dactylic tetrameters.—Now the self-same line may often be scanned several ways; so that the true metre can only be determined by that of the adjoining verses.

The preceding extracts sufficiently shew the extent of M. BOTHE's metrical skill.—He shall therefore be left in peace to *reduce the choruses to a sense of the beautiful, and to historical truth.* Two luculent specimens, however, must be given:—

Prom. 568. Io is introduced in an agony of madness and pain:—in which comfortable situation she is made to sing out, in *iamb. tetram. cat.*

> *εἴδωλον Ἄργου γηγενοῦς ἄλευε, Δᾶ! φοβοῦμαι—*

which is a metre entirely comic, and scarcely used by comedy herself, except in her easiest and jolliest moments.—It is *meant* to occur elsewhere in this new Æschylus; Prom. 431, 2. (424. *Both.*)

> *Ὅς αἰὲν ὑπέροχον σθένος νώτοις ὑποστηρίζει.*

This certainly is as good a verse as

> *τῇ παιδὶ τοὺς αὐλοὺς ἐχρῆν ἤδη προχείρους εἶναι,*

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* On the subject of the *ictus metricus*, or *arsis*, see Bentley's Schediasm on the metres of Terence, and Dawes, Sect. V. init.

† The accents are omitted, and the *ictus metricus* only is marked, to avoid confusion.

or——

πoῦ δὴ μέθυ ἤδη γέγονε καὶ πίνοντες ἤδη πόῤῥω.

Prometh. V. 235,6.

ἐγὼ δε τόλμαις ἐξερυσάμην βροτοὺς
τοῦ μὴ διαῤῥαισθέντας εἰς Αΐδου μολεῖν.

'235. *Me quoque vexari fateor asyndeto verborum* ἐτόλμησ' (*v. enim legitur* ἐγὼ δ' ἐτόλμησ') *et* ἐξερυσάμην, *nec quid reprehendatur Victorii et Canteri lectio* τολμῆς *i. e.* τολμήεις, *video, quæ proxime ad codicum scripturam accedit. Prætuli tamen* τόλμαις.'

First, let us see the variations.

δὲ τόλμης *Ald. Rob. MSS. Turnebi et Stephani, MS. unus Brunckii.*
δὲ τολμῆς *Turn. Steph. Cant. Stanl. quidam apud schol.*
δὲ τόλμας *unus MS. Brunckii.*
δ' ἐτόλμησ' *quidam apud Schol. edd. Brunck. Schutz.* 1. 2. *Pors. et sic conjecerat Valck. ad Phæn.* 856.

It appears, then, that ἐτόλμησ', which from the note would be concluded to be the MS. lection, is supported by no authority but the various reading of the scholiast.—*Nec quid reprehendatur* τόλμης *video, quod proxime ad codicum scripturam accedit.* Why then reject it? Is it *because* it approaches to the MS. reading? [M. BOTHE should have said which *was* in part of the MSS.]——It is for this reason, or for none. Why is ἐτόλμησ', after it had been eagerly adopted by the other editors, driven out of this Æschylus?—On account of the *asyndeton*; the very thing which gives life and vigour to the passage. *Schutz* very properly observes, *In* ἐτόλμησα—ἐξερυσάμην *asyndeton est, fervorem animi ex merito gloriantis prodit.* "Such unconnected sentences sometimes occur; and commonly afford the transcribers [and editors] an opportunity for blundering. In Hecuba, 1194, is the following verse:

" κακῶς ἀπώλοντο, κοὔτις ἐξήλυξέ πω.—

" The following is surely the true reading:

" κακῶς ἀπώλοντ'—οὔτις ἐξήλυξέ πω." *

V. 353,4. Ἑκατόγκαρηνον πρὸς βίαν χειρούμενον
Τυφῶνα θοῦρον, πᾶσ' ὃς ἀντέστη θεοῖς.

Thus M. BOTHE.—ἑκατογκάρηνον is *Pauw*'s emendation for ἑκατοντακάρηνον; and πᾶσ' is Stanley's alteration for πᾶσιν.—No mention is made of either variation.—ἑκατογκάρηνον is certainly true, and had been printed by Dr. Morell, Mr. Porson, and M. *Schutz* in his second edition. In his first, he follows *Brunck*, who in course retains the double anapæst. There are two passages of Aristophanes*, in which precisely the same error has been corrected from MSS.—*Nub.* 336. ed. Brunck,

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* Monthly Rev. July 1789, p. 15. Article *Glasse's Sampson Agonistes.*

πλοκάμους θ' ἑκατογκεφαλα Τυφῶ, πρημαινούσας τε θυέλλας.

Ran. 473.

Ἔχιδνα θ' ἑκατογκέφαλος, ἣ τα σπλάγχνα σου.

The old editions have ἑκατοντακεφάλα and ἑκατοντακέφαλος; against the metre † in both places.—As for πᾶσι, it is certainly wrong. The *iota* in the dative plural is never elided by the Attic Poets. See Prof. Porson's Appendix to Toup's Emendations, p. 450, and Monthly Rev. Sept. 1789, p. 244, article *Glasse's Samson Agonistes.*

V. 421. Ἀραβίας τ' ἄρειον ἄνθος,
ὑψικρημνόν θ' οἳ πόλισμα
Καυκασου πέλας νέμονται.
B.— ἀριβίας τ' ἄρειον ἄνθος,
ὑψίκρημνον οἳ πύλωμα
Καυκασου, πέλας, νέμονται.

'416. (421. Pors.) *Arabiæ commemorationem ceterorum, qui hic nominantur, situi locorum haud convenire, recte monuit Char Schützius. Equidem una literula* τοῦ Ἀραβίας *mutata reponendoque* πύλωμα *pro* πόλισμα

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* *Brunck* is silent respecting the present verses in his notes to Aristophanes. In his note to Prometh. 265. he says, *In v.* 353. *scribere potuisset poëta* ἑκατονκάρηνον *vel* ἑκατοντακάρανον:——*Sed sic interpolati versus nihilo gratius aures meas accidunt.*——This is not very consistent with the concession made by this critic, that the Tragic Poets avoided the anapæsts as much as they could:—for, if so, Æschylus *did* avoid the anapæs in this verse.

† M *Herman*, in his edition of the *Nubes*, prints ἑκατοντακεφάλα, perhaps from inadvertency.——The verse from the *Ranæ* is wrong, because an anapæst follows a dactyl. Dawes, p. 250. ed. Ox. It is equally true that an anapæst cannot follow a tribrach.—This latter rule M. *Herman*, *De Metris*, p. 158. attempts to controvert, by quoting thirteen instances from *Brunck's* Aristophanes: but there are scarcely three of the whole number that M. *Herman*, as we believe, has not by this time given up.—In the expected republication of the *Metres*, no such instances as the following will, we trust, be produced:——

Av. 108. ποδαπὼ τὸ γένος;—ὅθεν αἱ τριήρεις αἱ καλαί.
1506. ἀπὸ γὰρ ὀλίσεις, εἴ μ' ἐνθάδ' ὁ Ζεὺς ὄψεται.
1693. ἀλλὰ γαμικὴν χλανίδα διδότω τις δεῦρό μοι.
Equit. 134. κρατεῖν, ἕως ἂν ἕτερος ἀνὴρ βδελυρώτερος.
read, ὅθεν τρ.—ὀλεῖς—δότω—ἀνὴρ ἕτερος.
Equit 328. Ἀλλ' ἐφάνη γὰρ ἈΝΗ'Ρ ἝΤΕΡΟΣ πολὺ ΣΟΥ͂ ΜΙΑΡΩ'ΤΕΡΟΣ.

restituere poëtæ manum videor. ’Αριϐίας, *formatum ut* αἰνοϐίας *sonat fortissimum, quod pulcre convenit* τῷ Ἄρειον. *Intelliguntur autem proculdubio Sauromatæ,*’ *&c.*

1. All the *agreement of* ἀριϐίας *with* ἄρειον is that it makes a tautology. 2. It is not so much as pretended that ἀριϐίας is Greek, bnt only that it might have been Greek; and even this is not proved: for αἰνοϐίας, a compound of ϐία with an *adjective*, will not justify ἀριϐίας, a compound of ϐία with a *particle*. 3. If ἀριβίας did exist, it was masculine; as αἰνοϐίας, εὐρυϐίας, παμϐίας;—joined therefore to ἄνθος, it makes the grandest solecism that can be conceived. 4. As if these outrages on sense and language were not sufficient, two adjectives, ἀριϐίας and ἄρειον, one *masculine*, the other *neuter*, are made to agree with the same substantive.

V. 543. ἰδίᾳ γνώμῃ σέϐει
θνατοὺς ἄγαν, Προμηθεῦ.
B.— εὐθυνόγνωμος σεϐει—i. e. *benevolus, sincerus.*

Such a word as εὐθυνόγνωμος never did nor could exist. A compound of εὐθὺς and γνώμη would have been εὐθύγνωμος.—The old reading is defended by V. 402,3. ἀμέγαρτα γὰρ τάδε Ζεὺς ἰδίοις νόμοις κρατύνων, which expression is synonymous with παρ’ ἑαυτῷ τὸ δίκαιον ἔχων Ζεὺς, V. 186.

V. 637. ὡς τἀποκλαῦσαι κ’ ἀποδύρεσθαι τύχας
ἐνταῦθ’, ὅπη μέλλει τὶς οἴσεσθαι δάκρυ
πρὸς τῶν κλυόντων, ἀξίαν τριϐὴν ἔχει.
637. ὡς ἀποκλαῦσαι. *Ald. Rob. Steph. Canter. Stanl.*
ὥστ’ ἀποκ. *Brunckius ex duobus MSS.*
ὡς τ’ ἀποκ. *Turnebus, MS. Stephani.*
ὡς κἀποκ. *Schutz. e MS. Vitcberg. et Stanleii conjectura.*

Mr. Porson's τἀποκλαῦσαι is an emendation so neat and certain, that in course M. Bothe rejects it, and blunders on with κἀποκλαῦσαι.

V. 652,3. ἔξελθε πρὸς Λέρνης ϐαθὺν
λειμῶνα, ποίμνας ϐουστάσεις τε πρὸς πατρός.]
———‘ B. ϐαρὺν Λ. ποίμνης, ϐουστάσεις τε πρὸς πατρός.

‘ 644. (652. Pors.) V. Λέρνης ϐαθὺν λ., ποίμνας ϐ. *etc. merito hærentibus in App. in* ϐαθυν, *accedit prava conjunctio verborum.* Λ. ϐαρὺν ποίμνης, *pratum grave armentis,* i. e. *oppletum. Cf. Eurip. Phæn.* 1635. *Ovid. Heroid* 9, 116.’

The verse of the Phœnissæ is this:

οὐ γὰρ τὸ μὲν σοι ϐαρὺ κακῶν, τὸ δ’ οὐ ϐαρύ.

which in course is brought to prove that ϐαρὺς governs a genitive; so that M. Bothe construes it, οὐ γὰρ τὸ μέν σοι ἐστὶ ϐαρὺ κακῶν, τὸ δ’ οὐ ϐαρὺ κακῶν, *tibi enim non aliud quidem plenum*

plenum malis est, aliud autem non plenum malis, — which is thoroughly wrong. The sense is, κακῶν γὰρ οὔ τὸ μέν σοι ϐαρὺ ἐστὶ, τὸ δ' οὐ ϐαρύ. *Non enim aliud malum tibi grave est, aliud non grave.* The quotation from Ovid is very facetious:—

> " *Fæmina tela tulit Lernæis atra venenis,*
> *Ferre* gravem lana *vix satis apta* colum."

That the words ϐαθὺν λείμωνα have puzzled the interpreters is true: but explanation and not correction was required.—ϐαθὺς λειμὼν means, *a rich or fertile pasture. Jul. Pollux,* I. 227. Περὶ γῆς ἀγαθῆς. Γῆ δὲ ἐρεῖς, εὔφορος, εὔπορος, εὔσπορος, εὐήροτος, ϐαθεῖα. *Eurip. Androm.* 637. *ed. Beck.*

> —— πολλάκις δέ τοι
> ξηρὰ ϐαθεῖαν γῆν ἐνίκησε σπορά.
> (σπορᾷ *Brunck. ex ed. Lasc. et membr.*)

νειὸς ϐαθεῖα. *Il.* K. 353. Σ. 547.
λήϊον ϐαθὺ, *Il.* B. 147. *Odyss.* I. 134.
ὕλη ϐαθεῖα, *Il.* E. 555. O. 606. Π. 766. Υ. 491. *Od.* P. 316.
ϐάθος ὕλας. *Theocrit.* VIII. 49.
ξύλοχος ϐαθεῖα, *Il.* Λ. 415. Φ. 573.
ἄγκεα ϐαθέα, *Il.* Υ. 490.

Eurip. Hippol. 1137.

> ἀστέφανοι δὲ κόρας ἀνάπαυλαι
> Λατοῦς ϐαθεῖαν ἀνὰ χλόαν.

Homer Il. I. 151. 293.

> Φήρας τε ζαθέας, ἠδ' Ἄνθειαν ΒΑΘΥΛΕΙΜΟΝ.

Pindar, Pyth. X. 23. has ΒΑΘΥΛΕΙΜΩΝ.

Etymol. M. p. 185, 35. Βαθύλειμος, ΒΑΘΕΙ͂Σ [*male vulgo* ϐαθείας] ΛΕΙΜ῀ΩΝΑΣ ἔχουσα.

Hesychius. Βαθύλιμον. ϐαθὺν λιμένα ἔχον. Alberti rightly corrects Βαθύλειμον, ΒΑΘΥ͂Ν ΛΕΙΜ῀ΩΝΑ ἔχον, and quotes Homer, Pindar, and the Etymologicum, in support of his correction.—Βάθος λιμένος, however, is mentioned by Pollux, IX. 28.

V. 676. ἦσσον πρὸς εὔποτόν τε Κερχνείας ῥέος,
Λέρνης ἄκρην τε.

B. Κεγχρείας, and ἄκραν τε.—Κεγχρείας is in *Aldus,* four manuscripts, and the Scholiast.

ἄκροντε, *Ald. Rob. Brunckii codex B. pro v. lect.*
ἄκρην τὲ (vel τε) *Turn. Steph. Canter. Stanl. Brunckii codex B. in textu.*
ἄκραν τε *Brunck. e codice A. Schutz.*

Canter conjectures Λέρνης τε κρήνην. *Brunck* remarks:—" *Facile cuivis in mentem venire potuit* Λέρνης κρήνην τε [read Λέρνης τε κρήνην]. *Sed potuit etiam hic fluvius, seu rivus perennis aquæ e vicino* *et cognomine monte delabi. Nescio an Geographus aut Historicus aliquis montis meminerit. Sed sic se rem habere neganti non credam, nisi qui locorum naturam et situm ipse inspexerit.* Λέρνης ϐαθὺς λειμὼν [v. 652.] *convallem designare videtur, cui mons imminere debuit.*"—The argument from v. 652. has been already considered.

This conjecture about the topography of Lerna is, however, confirmed by *Pausanias*, II. 36. p. 198. *ed. Kuhn.* quoted by *Schutz.* The position of τε seems to point out a corruption; and the words ἄκρην τε are marked with an *obelus* in Mr. Porson's edition. *Canter*'s correction is supported by the Scholiast, whose paraphrase runs thus:—ἦσσον, ἀντὶ τοῦ ἤισσον, ὥρμων καὶ ἐκινούμην, πρός τε τὸν ῥοῦν τῆς Κεγχρῆς, ἥτις κρήνη ἐστὶν Ἄργους, καὶ πρὸς τὴν Λέρνην Τ'ΗΝ ΠΗΓ'ΗΝ.—If Λέρνης τε κρήνην was the original reading, the syllable ην may easily have been written once instead of twice; in which case τε ἄκρην, ἄκρην τε, &c. will be the successive supplements of unskilful correctors. Let this, however, and every thing else respecting Æschylus, be left undecided till Mr. Porson's notes appear.

V. 788. Ὅταν περάσῃς ῥεῖθρον ἠπείρων ὅρον,
πρὸς ἀντολὰς φλογωπὰς ἡλιοστιϐεῖς * * *
πόντου περῶσα φλοῖσϐον, ἔστ' ἂν ἐξίκῃ
πρὸς Γοργόνεια πεδία Κισθήνης, ἵνα
αἱ Φορκίδες ναίουσι.]

B.— Ὅταν, κ. τ. λ.
ποντοπορέουσα φλοῖσϐον, αἷστ' ἂν ἐξίκῃ
πρὸς ἀντολὰς φλογῶπας, ἀλλοιοστιϐεῖς
πρὸς Γοργόνεια πεδία καὶ στενοῖς, ἵνα κ. τ. λ.

which is thus translated:—'*Tranans fluctus marinos qua via pervenire queas ad lucentes solis ortus, diverso itinere ibis versus Gorgonios campos angustiasque, ubi*, &c.—1. ποντοπορέουσα, an *Ionic* form, is most ignorantly introduced into *Attic* iambics. 2. αἷστ' ἂν ἐξίκῃ, *qua via pervenire queas*, is a solecism: ἂν never governs the subjunctive. 3. ἀλλοιοστιϐεῖς is a word fresh coined in M. Bothe's inexhaustible mint. 4. στενοῖς is probably to be construed by some new syntax: for by the old systems it cannot belong to any thing in the sentence.

V. 1084. στρόμϐοι δὲ κόνιν
εἱλίσσουσι.]

B.— κόνι—
σμ' εἱλίσσουσι.——κόνισμα, again, is a word of *Bothian* fabrication.—This verse has given *Brunck* and Heath unnecessary trouble. *Brunck* imagines that εἱλίσσουσι was pronounced as if it had an Æolic *digamma* at its beginning. Heath uses his *panacea*, the particle γε, and reads κόνιν γ' εἱλ. Bentley, on Phalaris,

p. 135. rightly observes that the final syllable of *κόνιν* is long. Æschyl. Suppl. 177.

ὁρῶ κόνιν, ἄνχυδον ἄγγελον στρατοῦ.

The *iota* is long in the nominative, V. 780 of the same play:

κόνις ἄτερθε πτερύγων ὀλοίμαν.

which answers to V. 788.

πρόπαρ θανούσας δ' Ἀΐδας ἀνάσσοι.

Suppl. 310. Thus Stanley:

BA. Τί οὖν ὁ δῖος πόρτις εὔχεται βοός;
KO. Ἔπαφος ἀληθῶς ῥυσίων ἐπώνυμος,
Λιβύη μέγιστον τῆσδε γῆς καρπουμένη.
BA. Τίν' οὖν ἔτ' ἄλλον τῆσδε βλάστημον λέγεις;
KO. Βῆλον δίπαιδα, πατέρα τοῦδ' ἐμοῦ πατρός.
BA. Τὸ πάνσοφον νῦν ὄνομα τοῦτό μοι φράσον.
KO. Δαναὸς δ' ἀδελφός ἐστι πεντηκοστόπαις.
καὶ τοῦ γε Δαναοῦ τοὔνομ' εὐφώνῳ λόγῳ
Αἴγυπτος.

V. 312. λιβύη μέγιστον γῆς καρπουμένη. *Ald.*
οὐ λιβύη μέγιστον γῆς καρπουμένη. *Rob.*
λιβύη μέγιστον τῆσδε γῆς καρπουμένη. *Turn,*

Steph. Canter.—In *Aldus*, the speeches are not divided: in *Robortellus*, V. V. 311, 312. are given to *Danaus*, in the other editions to the Chorus.—Stanley; "*Versus hic deesse videtur, in quo quæsiverat Pelasgus quæ fuit Epaphi proles.*" *Schutz* takes the hint, and prints,

ΧΟΡΟΣ. Ἔπαφος κ. τ. λ.
ΒΑΣΙΛΕΥΣ. * * * *
ΧΟΡΟΣ. Λιβύη, μεγ. τῆσδε γῆς κ.

Still all is not right: for, *first*, τῆσδε is the supplement of some corrector; *secondly*, the verse will hardly construe; and *lastly*, if it could, it would bring *Libye*, the daughter of *Epaphus*, to *Argos:* which would be false as to fact.—From these difficulties Mr. Porson has freed the text, by an emendation which is very far above all praise:

ΒΑΣ * * * *
KO. Λιβύη, ΜΕΓΙΣΤΗΣ ὌΝΟΜΑ γῆς καρπουμένη.

The contraction for ὄνομα is ὀν, with or without an *omicron* written over; for ης, a final *sigma* written over the preceding letter: so that, if we write Mr. Porson's corrections in contractions, it will be

Λιβύη μεγίστ^{ς} ον γῆς καρπουμένη;

which differs from the reading of *Aldus* & *Robortellus* only by the superscribed *sigma*.

M. **Bothe** does indeed condescend to accept ὄνομα: but, with his usual scorn of all compromise with the MSS. he thus *re-writes* the speech:—

ΧΟΡΟΣ. Ἔπαφος ἀληθῶς ῥυσίων ἐπώνυμος,
Λιβύης μέγιστον ὄνομα γῆς καρπούμενος.

This note is given:

'V. *abest* ὄνομα *sententia et metro mancis; addidit verbum,* e codd. MSS haud dubie petitum, *Porsonus, itaque locum sanavit, non persanavit,* vulgata *quippe* μεγίστη; et καρπουμένη non tangens, ὄνομα *periphrasi ut passim* [illegible] *vit, neque igitur aliud sonant* μέγιστον ὄνομα γῆ, *quam* μεγίστην γῆν, *Ægyptum.*'

The text and the note may very safely be trusted with their own refutation. Observe, however, the accuracy of the writer; *vulgatum* μεγιστης *non tangens.* The common reading was not μεγίστης but μέγιστον;—which Mr. Porson *has touched* most effectually! How well is that man calculated for the office of an editor, who sets himself to correct a text without knowing what it is, and, like the *Andabatæ*, lays about him the most fiercely when he goes blindfolded! With regard to the fancy that ὄνομα is a MS. reading we shall briefly observe that M. **Bothe** has clearly the advantage over our Greek Professor: no future editor will ever rob *him* of his conjectures, in order to give them to the MSS.—As for *Schutz*, he qualifies ὀνομα with an *optime* in his first edition: in his second, he puts it into the text with this note:—μέγιστον τῆσδε γῆς] μεγίστης ὄνομα γῆς *St.* i.e. *my text has* μέγιστον τῆσδε γῆς;—the very reverse of which is true, and might possibly be meant to be written:—but Mr. Porson's name should have been mentioned.—Throughout his second edition, *Schutz* unblushingly pillages the Glasgow text of its best readings. One instance, only, shall be given at present: but it is a decisive instance.—*Sept. contra Theb.* 803.

ΧΟΡ. Τί δ᾽ ἐστὶ πρᾶγος νεόκοτον πόλει παρόν;
ΑΓΓ. [Πόλις σέσωσται, βασιλέες δ᾽ ὁμόσποροι]
Ἄνδρες τεθνᾶσιν ἐκ χερῶν αὐτοκτόνων.
ΧΟΡ. Τίνες;—

V. 804 is thus bracketed, as spurious, in the Glasgow folio; on which *Schutz*, in his second edition, says "*Hunc versiculum spurium esse, jam olim monueramus.* **Assensit Porsonus,** *versiculum uncis includendo.*"

An assertion so roundly made ought to be true:—but what is the fact? Simply this; M. *Schutz*, in his first edition, says not one word of the spuriousness of the verse, but writes on it with every appearance of believing it to be as genuine as any verse in Æschylus.—His notes shall be transcribed, at full length; and the reader is requested to verify our quotation by looking into the book itself: for, without actual inspection, it is not easy to believe that a writer can be so infatuated with the love of falsehood, as to indulge in it at the price of certain detection.

"VARIETAS LECTIONIS. V. 806 (804 *Pors.*) βασιλέες] βασιλεῖς *Ald.* βασιλεῖς *Rob. Mosqu.* 1. 2. *Guelf.*"

COMMENTARIUS. *Clarius jam nuntius quod acciderat eloquitur:* Urbs quidem servata est, reges autem fratres ipsi se invicem suis manibus occiderunt. *Abreschius contulit Sophocli Antig. v.* 177.

> —— ἐκεῖνοι πρὸς διπλῆς μοίρας μίαν
> Καθ' ἡμέραν ὤλοντο, παίσαντές τε καὶ
> Πληγέντες αὐτόχειρι σὺν μιάσματι.—"

In the collation of the Glasgow folio, *Schutz's Æschylus*, III. p. 362. is this statement:

"V. 806. [804. *Pors.*] *uncis inclusus, ut spurius.*" [Not a word of *ut ipsi monueramus.*]

M. BOTHE's note shall be also quoted, that we may secure an opportunity of giving him just and unqualified praise:

'754 (803. Pors.) *Post hunc versum v. legitur:*

> Πόλις σέσωσται, βασιλέες δ' ὁμόσποροι
> ἄνδρες, *etc.*

quæ adumbrata ex versu 822. (*i. e. ed. Schutz.* 820. *Pors.*) *hoc autem loco ineptissima sunt. Uncinis inclusit Porsonus.*'

To return to the Supplices.

V. 316. Δαναός. ἀδελφὸς δ' ἐστὶ π. *Scaliger apud Abresch.*
Stanleius.

317. καὶ τοῦ δαναοίγε, *Ald. Rob.* καὶ τοῦ γε Δαναοῦ, *Turn. Steph. Canter.* ἀφώνῳ *Ald.* ἀφθόνῳ *Rob.* εὐφώνῳ *Turn. Steph. Canter.* In all the editions, V. V. 316, 317. are given to the same speaker.——*Schutz* very rightly publishes Stanley's and *Scaliger's* emendation: but still the passage is corrupt: for how can *Danaus's* name be *Ægyptus? Scaliger* therefore farther corrects, καὶ τοῦ γ' ἀδελφοῦ,—very well as to the sense:—*Sed omnia præ* FORSONIANA *lectione sordent*;—

> K. Δαναός. ἀδελφὸς δ' ἐστὶ πεντηκοντόπαις.
> B. Καὶ ΤΟΥΤ' ἌΝΟΙΓΕ τοὔνομ' εὐφώνῳ λόγῳ.
> K. Αἴγυπτος.

δανοίγε being once changed by a very common error into δαναγε, the οι, which was written over the word or in the margin as a correction, was taken into the text as if it had been intended for an addition. This mixture of an error and its correction is not unfrequent: in the *Choëphoroe*, V. 997, where *Robortellus* has δρύτης and *Turnebus* δροίτης, *Aldus* gives δρυοίτης, i. e. $\overset{\text{οι}}{\text{δρύτης}}$, *tacente, ut solet, Schutzio.*

Schutz, in his *Commentary*, says, "*Vulgatam lectionem—etsi Stanleius videri poterat sic satis bene emendasse;——Multo tamen præstabilior est ea, quam Porsoni textus exhibet*, sive eam ex codice aliquo hauserit, *sive sua aut alius Critici nescio cujus conjectura indagatam receperit.*"

If this editor had deigned to inspect *Aldus* and *Robortellus*, which he boasts * of having diligently collated, he might have guessed the source whence τοῦδ' ἄνοιγε was drawn: but such is his diligence, that he has not given a single variation of the editions in this verse.—M. Bothe publishes V.V. 316, 317 exactly as Mr. Porson, but without a word of a note.

Two verses previously, he prints πανσάφοῦν, a word of his own making, for πάνσοφον, and remarks; 'V. πάνσοφον, *nimis absurde, nam si Danai nomen ignoret Pelasgus*, ignorat autem, *quomodo significationem verbi sciat.*" This leaden shaft is levelled at Stanley; who had said, *quasi* Δαναὸς *a* δαῆναι, *scire*:—but here is no ignorance, except in the present editor. *Pelasgus* questions the *Chorus*, to know, from their account of transactions with which he is himself acquainted, whether they are the persons whom they profess to be.

V. 673. Thus Stanley's text:

μηδέ τις ἀνδροκμὴς
λοιγὸς ἐπελθέτω,
τάνδε πόλιν δαΐξων,
ἄχορος κίθαρις
δακρυογόνον Ἄρη
βοάν τε δήμων ἔξω παίζων.

673. μὴ θέτις *Ald.* μήτε τὶς *Turn.* μηδέ τις *Rob. Steph. Cant.*
675. δαΐζων *Ald. Turn.* δαΐξων *Rob. Steph. Cant.*
676. κίθαρις *Ald. Rob. Steph. Cant.* κιθάρης *Turn.*
677. Ἄρη *Ald. Turn. Steph. Cant.* Ἄρην *Rob.*
678. δῆμον *Ald.* δήμων *Rob. Turn. Steph. Cant.*

The first critic who contributed to the restoration of this miserably depraved passage was Stanley:—"*Omnino levi* τοῦ Α *in* Λ *permutatione veram hic restituimus lectionem, legendo scil.* ἐξοπλίζων. *Ita enim et infra loquitur, V.* 710. (696 *Pors.*) πρὶν ἐξοπλίζειν Ἄρη. *et hujus Tragœdiæ*, V. 103. (97. Pors.)

——— βίαν
δ' οὔτιν' ἐξοπλίζει."

This correction is approved, *certatim*, by *Pauw*, Heath, and *Schutz*, who adopt it.

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* 'Collatis——ac diligenter excussis Æschyli tragœdiarum editionibus ad unam omnibus.'— Præf. p. viii.

Next comes *Pauw.—Vs.* 691. (678 *Pors.*) *facem præferente Schol. bene restituit* Pauwius, *pro* βοὰν τε δήμων *scribens* βοάν τ' ἔνδημον. ABRESCH. Heath approves, and *Schutz* adopts. *Schutz*, however, takes no notice of Aldus's δήμων. The words of the Scholiast are, Βοὰν τε δήμων] ἐμφύλιον μάχην, τὴν [*f. leg.* ἢ τὴν] ἐπὶ τοῖς ἀπολωλόσι βοήν.

Now let Heath be heard: "*Neque metrum hujus versus satis constat nec sententia. Proculdubio legendum est,*

Αχορος ακιθαρις

Emendationem hanc plane stabiliunt ista Sophoclis *in* Œdip. Colon. *v.* 1286, 1287.

Οτι μοιρ' ανυμεναιος
αλυρος αχορος αναπεφηνε.

Αλυρος *apud* Sophoclem *idem prorsus valet ac hic* ακιθαρις."—*Schutz* adopts this remark, with very great reason, although Heath should have gone farther, as will appear from the Glasgow text:

μηδέ τις ἀνδροκμὴς
λοιγὸς ἐπελθέτω,
τάνδε πόλιν δαΐζων,
ἌΧΟΡΟΝ, ἈΚΊΘΑΡΙΝ,
δακρυογόνον Ἄρην
βοάν τ' ἔνδημον ἐξοπλίζων.

Now indeed Æschylus speaks; and it would not be easy to shew any passage in which conjectural criticism is more signally triumphant: for thus writes Plutarch:—ἡ δὲ ἀρειμανὴς αὕτη λεγομένη καὶ πολεμικὴ [μανία] παντὶ δῆλον ὅτι τῷ θεῷ ἀνεῖται καὶ βακχεύεται,

Ἄχαριν, ἀκίθαριν, ἀκ * * * γονον ἀρ * * * τᾶτε δῆμον ἐξοπλίζουσαν. *Erotico* p. 758 F.—Read, ΔακΡΥΟγόνον ἄρΗΝ ΒΟὰΝ τ' ἐΝδημον ἐξοπλίζουσα. The quotation was pointed out by Prof. Porson, in his note to *Phœnissæ* 800 *.

It would seem that the exquisite beauty of the verses, as they stand in the Glasgow edition, might have disarmed even M. BOTHE of his rage: but no such thing: thus he attacks them:—

Ἄχορος, ἀκίθαρις, δακρυογόνον ἄρην
Βοάν τ' ἔνδημον ἐξεπαίρων.

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* As for this passage in Plutarch, it never entered even into the dreams of *Schutz!* His note thus states his opinion:

"Pro ἄχορος *et* ἀκίθαρις *Porsonus* ἄχορον *et* ἀκίθαριν *in textum recipit, ut ad* Ἄρην *referatur. Quod quamquam per se haud ineptum est, tamen vulgata quoque codicum lectio habet quo se tueatur.*"

The note is this:—' V. ἐξοπλιζων, *e Stanleii conjectura; sed codd., mendose quidem,* ἔξω παίζων, *et mox sequuntur persimilia* πρὶν ἐξοπλίζειν Ἄρη, *ut hæc ferri vetet nostri copiosa eloquentia.*'—On the preceding verse, it is said, V. Ἄρη, *male, nam de bello supra dictum* 596. (628 *Pors.*)—Whoever deserts Stanley and Porson deserves to follow Bothe.

One quotation from the Agamemnon, and we have done:

V. 1333. Τό μὲν εὖ πράσσειν ἀκόρεστον ἔφυ
πᾶσι βροτοῖσιν· δακτυλοδεικτῶν δ'
οὔτις, ἀπειπὼν εἴργει μελάθρων.
μηκέτι δ' εἰσέλθῃς τάδε φωνῶν.

M. Bothe publishes,—— δακτυλόδεικτον
Δ' οὔτις ἀπειπὼν εἴργει μελάθρων.
Μηδενὶ δ' ἐσθλὸν τάδε φωνῶ.

δακτυλόδεικτον is Stanley's conjecture. We would read the sentence thus:—

Τὸ μὲν εὖ πράσσειν ἀκόρεστον ἔφυ
πᾶσι βροτοῖσιν· δακτυλοδείκτων δ'
οὔτις ἀπειπῶν εἴργει μελάθρων,
ΜΗΚ'ΕΤ' 'ΕΣ ΈΛΘΗΙΣ, τάδε φωνῶν.

Prospera fortuna nunquam satiantur mortales:—neque eam beatorum quispiam pertæsus domo abigit, hoc dicens, Ne huc revertaris.

Æschylus uses τάδε, or its equivalent, in this manner:

Choëph. 311. ΔΡ'ΑΣΑΝΤΙ ΠΑΘΕΙΝ
τριγέρων μῦθος Τ'ΑΔΕ ΦΩΝΕΙ.

Persæ, 114. Ταῦτά μοι πελαγχίτων (στροφή.)
φρὴν ἀμύσσεται φόβῳ,
'ΟΑ' ΠΕΡΣΙΚΟΥ ΣΤΡΑΤΕΥΜΑΤΟΣ,
τοῦδε μὴ πόλις πύθη—
ται κενανδρ—
ον μέγ' ἄστυ Σουσίδος,
καὶ τὸ Κίσσινον πόλισμ' (ἀντιστρ.)
ἀντίδουπον ἴσσεται*,
'ΟΑ, ΤΟΥΤ' ἜΠΟΣ, γυναικοπλη—
θὴς ὅμιλος ἀπύων,
βύσσινοις δ'
ἐν πέπλοις πέσῃ λακίς.

M. Bothe writes, v. 117, τοῦτο for τοῦδε, which deserves attention. At all events, τοῦδε cannot belong to στρατεύματος.—The strophe and antistrophe have been given, that the true di-

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[*] *Lege ex viri longe doctissimi emendatione, quam ut ipse brevi tueatur optandum est,* ἌΙΣΕΤΑΙ.

vision of the verses might be shewn. A *Cretic* is sometimes thus intermixed with short *trochaics*. See the last chorus of the *Supplices*, as arranged in the Monthly Review, Jan. 1798; article *Butler's Musurus.*—*Agam.* 684, 702, read;

μή τις, ὅντιν' οὐχ ὁρῶ—
μεν προνοί—
αισι του πεπρωμένου——
Μῆνις ἤλασεν, τραπε—
ζας ατί—
μωσιν ὑστέρῳ χρόνῳ—

In the *Persæ*, 'Ο'Α is of course *extra versum.* It might as well, or better, have been written in a line by itself.

At last, then, we close this book.—From the samples which have been produced, some estimate may be formed of the nature of M. BOTHE's innovations: but of their extent no idea can be given, except by printing so much of the text as would cover a quantity of paper that we cannot in conscience devote to such a performance.

Before we part with this editor, however, let us pay him one sincere and merited commendation. If he be more precipitate and more confident than *Pauw*, he is at least free from his petulance and acrimony. He is always good-humoured. He rightly considers that all critics are not BOTHES; and from the elevation of his genius, he looks down with placid composure on Porson, Stanley, and other dull mortals, who drudge in the inferior regions of sense and learning:—who submit to read before they correct, and to think before they write.

ART. X. *Monumens Celtiques*, &c.; *i. e.* Celtic Monuments, or Inquiries concerning the Worship of Stones, preceded by an account of the Celts and the Druids, and followed by Celtic Etymologies. By M. CAMBRY, of the Celtic Academy, of the Imperial Society of Agriculture, &c. Dedicated to his Majesty the Emperor and King. 8vo. pp. 471. and 7 large Plates. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

IT is doubtless worthy of great nations and enlightened rulers to avail themselves of all the means which they possess, in order to illustrate their antiquities and early history; and much commendation is here bestowed on the encouragement afforded by the new Imperial government to researches concerning the Celtic language and monuments. The establishment of the institution, indeed, of which mention is here made, shews that its Imperial patron covets every species of glory; and we shall be glad to learn that the objects of it are pursued with zeal and diligence, being convinced that it is a field not yet sufficiently explored, and of which no corner should be left unexamined.

From some passages in this volume, it would seem that the Bretons are not less zealous for national honor and superior antiquity, than our worthy fellow-subjects of the principality of Wales; and in the present writer, though not a Breton himself, their pretensions meet with a warm and intrepid advocate. A Celtic monument in his neighbourhood, and an accidental excursion into the vicinity of Carnac, (the Stonehenge of Brittany,) gave to his studies their present direction. He states that the results disclosed in this work are the fruit of assiduous labour, lucky chances, and long excursions; and they lead, he says, to a new course, it being clear that, to this day, history has not followed the track which would conduct us to truth:—but why are we at this period to expect new discoveries? 'Because the restraints imposed on men in past times exist no longer; the means of study and of criticism are infinite; the sciences and all the arts are highly advanced; we direct our attention to matters which have been neglected until our own days, and new views lead to new results. In grand revolutions, all is in motion. Under the auspices of the genius which presides over and outstrips the age, great progress is to be expected in all the objects of liberal pursuit.'—Very much the reverse of all this, however, has been the case in the interval which has transpired since this volume has seen the light: for the genius which presides over the age has spread desolation through those districts of the globe, in which mental cultivation had reached its highest pitch;—we refer to the North of Germany.

M. CAMBRY asserts that the antient Celtic, the Breton, the Welsh, and the Erse, form one and the same language; he also maintains that the Armorican Bretons, having expelled the Romans, were never subjugated by the Franks; and that their country was not included in the partition between the sons of Clovis. *Pasquier* says; "Our Bretons have always been military, and the only people to whom the domination of the Franks never extended. Defeated by Clovis, Chilperic, and Dagobert, they have been tributary, but never were subjugated." The Bretons had even frequent wars with the Franks: but Dagobert prohibited all communication between the two people, in order to prevent his subjects from emigrating, Brittany enjoying the blessings of commerce and abundance, while its government never debased its coinage. The author then observes that Brittany dates its decline from its union with the crown of France, in consequence of the marriage of its last Duchess Anne. The Bretons, he informs us, never ceased from attempts to recover their independence; their country was in consequence regarded with a jealous eye by the kings of France; and its flourishing state, its manufactures, commerce, and industry, very soon disappeared.

Our Cambrian countrymen, we have understood, maintain that their language is the primæval one; and therefore, we suspect, they will not be very well pleased with the moderate pretensions asserted by their present advocate, who only contends on behalf of their dialect that it is the parent of all those of Europe:

'Let not,' he says, 'this claim be disregarded because the claimants now form an inconsiderable tribe, are poor, ill-clothed, and ill-accomodated; for it cannot be denied that Brittany constituted a large portion of the antient residence of the Celts; that it never was subjugated; that neither admixture nor emigration ever corrupted its language; and that the dialect of Brittany at this day is that of the antient Gauls. Is it then extraordinary that we should find Celtic etymologies, and those of other tongues, in the very language which the Celts themselves spoke?

'All the Gallic words which are to be found in antient writers are at present current in the language of Brittany, and in that of the principality of Wales. The Romans, during their residence in Gaul, altered some Celtic words and gave them different terminations, but the basis of the language remained unchanged.

'The conviction of the antiquity of the language now spoken in Brittany, Wales, and some districts of Ireland and Scotland, has determined some men, zealous for the glory of the Celts their ancestors, to institute inquiries into their language and history; to collect together the monuments which illustrate their country; and to found a Celtic academy. It is proposed by this body, 1 to make researches into the Celtic language, to give the etymology of all words which are derived from it, and especially of those which enter into the French; 2. to describe, elucidate, and engrave, all the remains of Gallic monuments which have reached our times. The society will regularly publish its memoirs.'

The writer highly extols M. JOHANNEAU for his researches and discoveries in etymology; who, he contends, has introduced into this science all the certainty of geometry. He was honored, we are told, with the friendship of *Latour d'Auvergne*, who bequeathed to him his Celtic library.

From the labours of this academy, the author promises 'the introduction of an improved geography, and of vast light into the antiquities of France; the thick veil which now conceals antient times is to be removed; and the monuments which belonged to them, with the customs which distinguished them, are about to re-appear.' We, however, do not expect from this field of inquiry, all the harvest which this sanguine writer anticipates; yet we rejoice that it is become an object of attention in France, and we hope that it will remain so till the ground is fully explored. That active and enterprizing people have investigated their Roman and Teutonic antiquities with laudable diligence, and with eminent success. Let them also endeavour to signalize themselves in regard to their Gallic antiquities, since it is most fitting that all which can be discovered relating to them should be brought to light.

The ingenious and judicious *Mallet*, in the introduction to his history of Denmark, invited attention to the distinction between the Celts and the Goths; a distinction which it appears to us very important to bear in mind in every thing that relates to European antiquities. That grand distinction, which the accounts of Cæsar and Tacitus sanction, is here not once noticed. Indeed, if we are allowed to form a judgment from this volume, we should conclude that the subject of Celtic antiquities is altogether a new topic in France; and that the proficiency made in it falls very short of that which this country can boast.

If it be admitted that the district now called Brittany was never subdued by the Franks, it cannot be denied that it was completely reduced by the Romans; and what proofs can this writer bring that the language of Brittany, as well as that of other parts of Gaul, did not become wholly Latin? Or how does he prove that all who speak the Breton language are not the descendants of emigrants from this country? The testimony of tradition is strong on the subject, and the change of name which the country underwent strongly corroborates it. We think that the presumption that the modern Bretons are the descendants of British emigrants is much stronger than that which represents them as original Gauls; and the extraordinary resemblance of the two dialects very much supports the latter hypothesis. The Welsh and the Bretons are able to hold intercourse together, and in a very short period become conversant with their respective dialects: but we believe that this is by no means the case with regard to the Welsh and those who speak the Irish and Highland dialects; the two latter of which bear a very close affinity, while they have very little similarity to the Welsh and the Breton. We form our judgment, however, on a comparison of printed specimens of each; and we are aware that the rules of construction in these languages render this test far from satisfactory.

The most interesting specimen of the Celtic remains now discoverable in France is unquestionably the grand Cromlech of Carnac, situated near the burgh of that name, about three leagues from the city of Auray, in the department of Morbihan.

han. It stands near the sea, and the adjoining country is the most wild and barren that can be imagined. This singular monument, though presenting little of minute resemblance, exhibits all the general characteristics of Stone-henge; the stones are equally massive, but they are differently ranged; those of Carnac stand singly, and run in lines as well lengthwise as transversely; the distance between each stone in the one way being from twelve to fifteen feet, and in the other, from thirty to thirty-three. The author is of opinion that this marvellous assemblage of stones bore some relation to astronomy; and among the traditions respecting it, he deems that to be the most rational, which ascribes its formation to the annual addition of a stone at the time of the summer solstice: a practice which he compares with the Roman usage of inserting, every year, a nail in the door of the temple of Jupiter. The highest stones of Carnac measure in height from twenty to twenty-two feet; they vary considerably in breadth and thickness: but among them is one which is twenty-two feet high, twelve wide, and six in thickness, the weight of which is calculated at 250,000 pounds. The number of stones is made to amount to four thousand: but they are said to have been more numerous formerly, and to have covered upwards of three leagues coastwise.

The aspect of these shapeless masses is stated to be most singular; the assemblage stands alone in a large plain, without trees or shrubs of any kind; they rest on a basis of sand, which presents not a fragment of a stone nor even a pebble; they are in equilibrium, without any thing like a foundation; and many of them are moveable. Engravings of the whole, under different points of view, accompany this volume; and, aided by the descriptions which it contains, they are here said to furnish an accurate representation, though they must necessarily fail in exciting the impression communicated by the original.

M. Cambry observes of these rude monuments,—the dolmins, the cromlechs, the erect stones, the high places shaded by venerable oaks, sanctified by the presence of a god which was adored in the silence of the night,—that they were the forerunners of the altars of marble, the elegance of which we admire; of the statues of Phidias, the temples of Pestum and of Sicily, of the Pantheon, of the temple of Theseus, the tomb of Mausolus, the pyramids of Egypt, and the temples of Abyssinia, and of Jupiter Ammon.

In a work dedicated to *Bonaparte*, it was to be expected that our country and its inhabitants would be made subjects of abuse and invective: but nothing can be more wretched of that kind than the attempts of this writer. He envies us the fame which our island enjoyed in Pagan times as a druidical school, and as the channel through which that discipline passed into Gaul; and he strips it of that distinction, by referring the Britannia mentioned by Cæsar to the modern Brittany; though it is well known that the latter country was never so designated till long after the time of that conqueror. The reasonings are too flimsy, and the authorities too slight, by which he endeavours to support this paradox, to render it necessary to apply criticism to them.

The zeal of the author leads him to undertake a collection of the passages in antient writers which speak of the Druids; but it is by no means complete. Next follows an account of the Celtic monuments which still remain in those countries that were either temporarily or more permanently occupied by that vast population; and he then notices the resemblance between them and those of other rude nations. For the scanty Gallic remains which are to be found in his own country, he accounts by referring to the severe edicts which the kings of the first race issued against idols and their worshippers.

M. CAMBRY's extravagance of hypothesis, and his profound malignity, are strongly exemplified in the following conjecture, which he gravely hazards. Having stated that the Dolmins, which are two stones, each standing endways, supporting a transverse one, were emblematical of treaties between different tribes, he observes; 'Stone-henge is perhaps the theatre of oaths of fidelity taken in antient times by each tribe of Albion to the antient Bretons of the continent. Each tribe erected its respective Dolmin as a testimony of the stability and eternity of the engagements into which it entered with its lords.' Has his august imperial majesty a mind sufficiently little to receive any delight from these puerile extravagancies?

In a part of this volume composed by M. JOHANNEAU, he promises to point out in the early numbers of the memoirs of the Celtic Academy, the books which must be studied in order to attain skill in Celtic antiquities. He states that he is anxious to gain proselytes to this pursuit; his devotion to which, he tells us, he acquired from *Latour d'Auvergne*. It was from the conversations of the latter, which were particularly animated, on the importance of this language, which he had learned from his birth, that M. JOHANNEAU was taught its value and utility; as also from his excellent work styled *Origines Gauloises*, and above all from his *Glossaire Breton-Polyglotte*, printed at Bayonne in 1792, a production superior even to the *Origines*:

'The Swedes and Danes,' says the same person, 'study the language of the Edda, in order the better to know their own and their national history. With the same views, the Germans study the Teutonic, and the English, the Welsh and Anglo Saxon; but we, more frivolous and less zealous for national glory, despise what we neither know nor desire to know. *Le Pelletier, Pezron, Gebelin, Latour d'Auvergne*, have in vain laboured successfully in this field; their useful and curious writings are little sought or known; our academies make dictionaries without ever consulting the labours of these eminent persons; and much less do they think of studying, like them, the original language of Gaul, whence those meritorious literati have drawn their valuable discoveries.'

If the Latin was the prevailing dialect at the period of the invasion of the Franks, it follows that the modern French is, for the most part, a mixture of that language and the Teutonic; and that the study of the Celtic can only be of limited use in illustrating it. We by no means, however, desire to damp the zeal of the two persons to whom we are indebted for this volume. The pursuit is liberal, and may be in various ways beneficial; and we shall be glad to see them discard their present errors, and attain a degree of proficiency which, without an academy, has been reached in the country which they are so studious to degrade.

Art. XI. *Nova Acta Societatis Latinæ Jenensis. Edidit* D. Henr. Carol. Abr. Eichstädt. *Volumen Primum.* 8vo. Lipsiæ. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 6s.

This first volume of a new Jena Society resembles in point of merit many which, in the course of our long literary life, we have observed endeavouring to attract public notice, and general patronage: but which, from a want of judgment in the conductors, or of learning in the writers, have soon felt their career checked, and have never reached the goal at which their aspiring hopes led them to suppose that they should certainly arrive.—Of such failure, the real cause seems to be that the authors are most commonly fonder of *writing* than of *reading*; and that they are more ambitious of teaching the world, than of acquiring the stock of knowlege which is necessary for so arduous a duty. In the present instance, therefore, we shall content ourselves with little more than enumerating the articles which the volume contains; since minute criticisms on each would occupy more space than we can allot to these compositions.

De Archyta Tarentio Disquisitio, à C. G. Bardili.—A jejune essay on the antient philosopher of Tarentum; respecting whose works, Fabricius has written in his Bibliotheca Græca, Vol. I. p. 493. Edit. Vet.

LUD. FRID. HEINDORFII *ad H. C. A. Eichstaedtium Epistola Critica, in Platonis Theætetum.*—Plato's Theætetus offers abundant opportunities for the genuine critic to display his skill, either by illustration or correction. M. HEINDORF's emendations, however, afford but slight marks of an active and vigilant reader of Plato:—*sunt mediocria, sunt mala plura.* The expression *somniandum cum Stephano,* p. 21. is coarse, and presumptuous in the extreme, when applied by L. F. HEINDORF to the immortal *Henry Stephens.*

PHILIPPI BUTTMANNI *Criticæ Annotationes in locos quosdem Ciceronis.*—These alterations are proposed in passages from Cicero's Epistles *ad Famil.* 4. 15.—*Brutus.* 16. 22. 40. 66. 79. 89.—*Orat. in Verr.*—*Pro Lege Manil.*—*Pro Cluent.*—*De Lege Agraria.*—They are trifling.

FRID. GUL. STURZII *de Vocabuli γένς significationibus.*—This is an ingenious essay. The writer of it has already appeared before the public, as the editor of the Fragments of Pherecydes.

De Friderici Sylburgii Vita et Scriptis, Oratio dicta in Electoris Hassiaci Natalitiis, 1803. *Marburgi. A* GEO. FRID. CREUZERO, *Litterarum Græcarum et Eloquentiæ Professore.*—An interesting memoir of a truly profound scholar. We looked in vain, however, for some critical examination of his labours, and some account of his plans, as an editor. His erudition demanded such an investigation. Every scholar must hear with respect the honoured name of *Frederick Sylburgius.*

De Livii aliquot Codicibus Helmstadiensibus. Scripsit CHRIS. THEOPH. WERNSDORF, *Professor Helmstadiensis.*—These lections are not of high importance: but we are glad to see them published; and we recommend it to Professor WERNSDORF to complete these collations.

G. G. BREDOW, *Professoris Historiarum Helmstadiensis in Ciceronis, Sophoclis, Plutarchi aliquot locos, Criticæ Observationes.*—In the Electra of Sophocles, edit. *Brunckii,* Professor BREDOW assigns v. 823. 4, 5, 6, to the chorus, 827 to Electra, and leaves the remainder of the Strophe as it stands in *Brunck.* In the antistrophe, he reads 843.

Chorus. Φεῦ δῆτ· ὀλοὰ γὰρ ἐδαμη
844-8. Electra. Ναὶ. οἶδ᾽, οἶδ᾽.——ἀνασπασθείς.—

We see little ingenuity in this proposed assignment of the verses 823—6 to Electra, and great disingenuousness in not stating that the old books, and *Erfurdt*, have so published them —The change at the close of the antistrophe is very disputable.—In 837, the margin of *Turnebus* gives γοῶν for γᾶς, which will restore the true measure, as a long syllable is demanded.

The metres ought to stand thus:

Strophe. 824.

1. Ποῦ ποτε κεραυνοὶ Διὸς, ἢ
2. Ποῦ φαέθων Ἅλιος, εἰ ταῦτ' ἐφορῶν—
3. τες κρύπτουσιν ἕκηλοι;
4. ἒ, ἔ, αἰ, αἶ.
5. Ὦ παῖ, τί δακρύεις; φεῦ.
6. μηδ' ἐν μέγ' αὔσης ἀπολεῖς· πῶς;
7. εἰ τῶν φανερῶς οἰχομέ-
8. νων εἰς Ἀΐδαν ἐλπίδ' ὑπ-
9. οἴσεις, κατ' ἐμοῦ τακομέ-
10. νας μᾶλλον ἐπεμβάσει.

METRA.

1.	- ∪ ∪ ∪ -	- ∪ ∪ -		1.	Glyconcum Polyschematist.
2.	- ∪ ∪ -	- ∪ ∪ -	- ∪ ∪ -	2.	Choriamb. trim. acatal.
3.	- - - ∪	∪ - -		3.	Phalæceum.
4.	*Extra metrum.*			4.	
5.	- - ∪ ∪	- - -		5.	Ionic. a Majore dimetr.
6.	- - ∪ ∪	- - ∪ ∪	- -	6.	Ionic. a Maj. trim. catal.
7.	- - ∪ ∪	- - ∪ ∪		7.	Ionic. a Min. dim.
8.	- - ∪ ∪	- - ∪ ∪		8.	Idem.
9.	- - ∪ ∪	- - ∪ ∪		9.	Idem.
10.	- - ∪ ∪	- - -		10.	Idem.

In V. 5. *and* 10. *Molossus secundam occupat; et in V.* 6. *Molossus catabet. tertiam.*

The Ionica a Majore may be divided into tetrameters, instead of dimeters.

Some passages in Cicero and Plutarch are also criticized, for which the reader may consult the *Acta* themselves.

Carmen Sæculare supremo Sæculi XVIII. *die, dictum a* FRIDER. ROTH, D.—This *Carmen Sæculare* is written in Hexameters, and fills above five pages:—but the verses did not merit publication.

Carmen Diogenis Laertii de Eudoxo, Lib. VIII. fin. Metro suo restitutum. A G. F. GROTEFEND, *Prorectore Francofurtensis ad Mœnum.*—It is singular that these Galliambics of Diogenes should have never been rightly arranged by any of the critics. Professor GROTEFEND has exhibited them very nearly according to the laws of that singular measure:

Ἐν Μέμφει λόγος ἐστὶν προμαθεῖν τὴν ἰδ ην
Εἴδοξον ποτε μοῖραν παρὰ τοῦ καλλικέρω
Ταύρου. Κοὐδὲν ελεξεν· βοῒ γὰρ πόθεν λόγος;
Φύσις οὐκ ἔδωκε μόσχῳ λάλον Ἄπιδι στόμα.
Παρὰ δ'αυτὸν λέχριος στὰς ἐλιχμήσατο στολὴν,
Προφανῶς τοῦτο διδάσκων, ἀποδύσει βιοτὴν
Ὅσον οὔπω. Διὸ καὶ οἱ ταχέως ἦλθε μόρος,
Δεκάκις πένϑ' ἐπὶ τρισσαῖς ἐσιδόντι πλειάδας.

In the first line, the Professor gives ἐστὶ for ἐστὶν, which injures the metre; as ΠΡ can scarcely make a final iota long. He, however, doubtless imagines that it may; since he reads the last line thus:

Δεκακις πεντε γ' ἐπὶ τρεῖς ἐσιδόντι πλειάδας,

in which the last syllable of ἐπὶ is lengthened before ΤΡ. This has an aukward appearance in Lyrics. The books have πέντε ἐπὶ, and the old *botcher* γε or γ' looks queerly after πέντε. Δεκάκις γε, if the metre had been sound, would have been more to the purpose. We have given the line above as corrected by a most learned friend.

FRID. AUG. BODE *de Summa Poeseos Perfectione in Dramate Græcorum exhibita Disputatio.*—The Greek stage is a subject highly interesting to all scholars. Little praise, however, can be bestowed justly on this oration, or essay, which contains no novelty, and in which the author has displayed little skill in his use of old materials. Who can be instructed by a page or two of Aristotle's Poetics, from a Latin translation: by a blind reference to Plato, (*in loco quodam Platonis*); and by a citation from the *Ars Poetica*, respecting the duties of the chorus?

HENR. CAROLI ABR. EICHSTADII *Eloqu. et Poes. in Acad. Jenens. Professoris, in Plutarchea quædam e Poetis hausta Animadversiones.*—Why will not these *Professores* labour to understand a little of Greek prosody, before they venture to meddle with Greek poetical fragments? The immolation of *Jo. Clericus*, after the publication of his Menander, at the altar of TRUE LEARNING, though Bentley was the *Immolator*, strikes no terror into this hardy race!—Let the critic mark, as he reads, these verses, published by Professor HENRY, CHARLES, ABRAHAM EICHSTÄDT;

Menander. Ἀλεξάνδρου τοῦ βασιλέως πλέον πέπωκα,

and, Γέλωτι πρὸς τὸν Κύπριον ἐκθανούμενος.

which by chance will scan.—Again,

Τί δ' οὐ πρὸς τοὺς ἐμοῦ κρείττους ἄπει,
Ἐμοὶ δὲ μὴ παρέχεις πράγματα;

In *Wyttenbach*'s edition of Plutarch, I. p. 322.

> Πρὸς τοὺς ὑποτυχὼν ἄν τις εἴποι,
> Θεος δέ σοι πῆμ' οὐδὲν, ἀλλ' αὐτὸς αὐτῷ,
> σύ σοι, καὶ ἡ διὰ την ἀπαιδευσίαν ἄνοια καὶ
> παραφροσύνη.
>
> "*Quibus hoc dicto occurrere non ineptè liceat,*
> *Non tibi Deus nocet, sed ipse tu tibi*
> *Officis, et tua malè instituti recordia.*"

Prof. EICHSTÄDT proposes for αὐτῷ to read συ σοι; and he states that Plutarch alluded to Sophocles, Œd. Tyr. 387. (Brunck. 379.)

> Κρέων δέ σοι πῆμ' οὐδὲν, αλλ' αὐτὸς σύ σοι.

This is of a better stamp; as is the reference to Simonides, on the same work of Plutarch, p. 315. where, however, *Wyttenbach* had observed, *dictio poetam sapit.*

In Plutarch's *Amatorius*, and in his *de Tranquillitate*, the Professor cleverly detects a reference to the Bacch. of Euripides, 66.—He adds an emendation or two, and concludes his paper with asserting that a passage in Plutarch's *de cohibenda ira* may readily be reduced to trimeters, as it is taken from some comic writer.—It is to be regretted that he has favoured his readers with the Iambics.

Joh. Frid. Christii, Professoris quondam Lipsiensis, Anecdota quaedam in gratiam Christiani Felicis Weissii, descripta a FRID. VOLGANGO REIZIO.—These inedited extracts from Professor Christius's papers might have remained unpublished, without occasioning any bitter lamentations in the literary world.

Alcaei Hymnus in Mercurium, e fida Horatii (Od. 1. 10.*) versione, quantum fieri poterat, restitutus a G. F.* GROTEFEND, *Gymnasii Francofurtensis Prorectore.*—Horace's five Latin Sapphic Stanzas are here translated into what M. GROTEFEND pleases himself with supposing to be five Greek Alcaic Stanzas!—This *Prorector Gymnasii Francofurtensis* will probably be surprised when he is informed that no one of these stanzas exhibits its third verse formed in the mould of Alceus:—" So Grecian, yet so Latin all the while!" In the fragments of Alceus, a sufficient number of these third verses is preserved, to assure us that there was invariably an *Iambus in tertiâ sede*, and never a *Spondeus.*

In the Monthly Review for January, 1798, p. 8. some remarks on this measure were offered to its learned readers; in which it was proved that in Horace the FIFTH syllable was always LONG, and in Alceus always SHORT; or that in the latter there was an *Iambus* in the third place, and in the former a *Spondeus.*

Alceus. Apud. Herocl. Pont.
Λαῖφος δὲ πᾶν ΖΑΔΗ*λον ἤδη*

Horace. I. 9. 3.
Sylvæ laboRANTES geluque

In Greek — — ⏑ — | ⏑ — ⏑ — | —
⏑ —
In Latin — — ⏑ — | — — ⏑ — | —
⏑ —

or rather:

— — ⏑ | — — — | ⏑ — —
Bacchius. | Molassus. | Antibacchius.

Let the reader now peruse the third verses of *Prorector* GROTEFEND's Alcaic Stanzas.

3. *Φωνᾷ πεπαίδευκας περίφρων.*
7. *Σοφόν τε κλέπτειν ὅσσ' ἄραξεν.*
11. *Ὡς παῖδ' ἐνίσσων ἦν, φαρετρας.*
15. *Λέλαθ' Ἀτρείδας Θεσσαλῶν τε.*
19. *Γείδωλα χρυσέια, θεὸισιν.*

It surely cannot be denied that the *Prorector* had just grounds for prefixing ALCÆUS RESTITUTUS to his composition!

GREG. GOTTL. WERNSDORF, *A. M. et Scholas Numburg. Cathedralis Rectoris, Animadversiones Criticæ in Ciceronis Orationes, pro Ligario, pro Rege Dejotaro, et pro Lege Manilia.*—

In the *Orat. pro Ligario.* C. 7. for *ita quidem aiebat,—opponebat*, M. WERNSDORF would read *e MSS.—ita quidem agebant, ita—opponebant.*—Again, for *Ernesti*'s *illum voluisse—quam aliquam maluisse*—he defends *ullum*, and *aliquem se*, the lections of our old friend GRÆVIUS.—We must once more refer to the *Acta*, for a full indulgence in these critical animadversions.

Ciceronis locos nonnullos Libri I. de Officiis et Lælii emendavit atque illustravit AUG. GOTTH. GERNHARD, *LL. AA. M. Schol. Cathedr. Numburg. Conrect. Soc. Lat. Jenens. Sod.*—From p. 259. to p. 270.—Slight work this, and published, perhaps, for the use of *Corrector* GERNHARD's scholars!

IO. CHRIST. WERNSDORFII, *quondam Consiliarii Aulici et Eloqu. ac Poes. P. P. O. in Academ. Helmstad. de Constantiniana Daphne in Numo Constantini M. Commentatio.*—These remarks extend from p. 270. to p. 312.—The commentary will invite the attention of those readers who pursue the amusing and useful study of coins and medals.

De Charistiis Romanorum et succedente iis in Ecclesia die Cathedræ vel Epularum S. Petri. Meletema Io. CRISTIANI WERNSDORFII, &c. &c. &c. This paper contains some curious observations, and some display of reading. Why the author, however, made no use, in p. 348, 9. of *Valckenaer*'s learned remarks on the festival of Adonis, we cannot determine. M. WERNSDORF ought at all events to have referred to them, and to have introduced the citation from St. Cyril of Alexandria.—The annotation of *Valckenaer* is in his Edition of ten Idyllia of Theocritus, Lugd. Bat. 1772.

We are also presented in this volume with two short papers written in the German language. The first, *on the Hecate of the Greeks*, proceeds from the pen of Prof. Voss, author of a translation of Homer and Virgil. He endeavours to trace the origin of that deity, which he finds in Thrace, to shew the probable cause of the great variety of attributes bestowed on her, and to reduce them to some sort of unity. He adopts it as a principle, the truth of which is confirmed by the history of Hecate, whose image Pausanias found still in a simple shape at Ægina, that all deviations from the noble figure of man in the representation of deities owe their origin to later mystics and artists; and he considers it as singular that the triple Goddess has never been transformed into one multiplied by the sacred numbers seven or nine, or even by a hundred; that, though the name of Hecate is often used for Selene, Artemis and Persephone, we never find a triple Selene or Persephone, but often a three-headed Artemis mentioned; and that frequently by the side of Hecate, an Artemis is introduced and likewise three-headed.

The second German paper is a translation of *the first Olympic Ode of Pindar*, in the metre of the original, by Professor GROTEFEND. If any modern language be capable of reflecting the true image of the Grecian bard, it is the German, which in its whole construction can probably boast of the greatest similarity to the Greek. Who can bear to read Pindar in French? or can we feel that we read Pindar while we read rhyme? Prof. *Voss* has the merit of having excited an emulation among his countrymen, for preserving the Greek poets, in translation, as much as possible in their original garb and spirit. M. GROTEFEND has chosen perhaps the most difficult task of a translator, in adhering closely to the rhythm of his original. Without entering into a minute criticism on single passages, we may allow that the version possesses simplicity and harmony, though in several parts of it the energy of the original is lost.

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